The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1886.

The Week.

THE danger of the passage of any law requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to pay out all the money in the Treasury except the $100,000,000 which constitutes the greenback redemption fund, is very slight. Such a measure, if passed by the House, would pretty certainly be stopped in the Senate, and would surely encounter the Executive veto. It is most humiliating, however, that the House should have any such measure under serious consideration, and the hardship is all the greater since the Democratic party is pushing this destructive policy against its own Administration, the Republicans on the Ways and Means Committee and Mr. Abram S. Hewitt alone resisting the attack. The Democrats in the House are certainly doing all they can to drive the Independent voters back to the Republican party. When they go they will have a reinforcement of Democratic Mugwumps sufficient to make politics interesting in the next campaign.

Mr. Bland was defeated again in the Coinage Committee on Wednesday, this time in a most unexpected manner, by the vote of Mr. Norwood, of Georgia. The latter gentleman had received the same petitions from the business community of Savannah in favor of suspension of the coinage that "old Joe Brown" had received in the Senate, but he treated them very differently. He conformed his action to the wishes of his constituents, while Mr. Brown, by the gift of omniscience, discerned that the petition of the Savannah merchants had a printed heading, and must therefore have come from some other State than Georgia, where the art of printing is unknown and where merchants cannot read, and ought therefore to be held of no effect. Mr. Norwood's vote in the Committee left Mr. Bland, as it were, high and dry. He is now in worse shape than ever, so far as his Committee is concerned. But the friends of honest money are in much better shape. They are now in a position to force the fighting.

Attention has been drawn to the clauses in Mr. Morrison's Tariff Bill relating to lumber, the suggestion having been made that it is not intended to admit pine and spruce lumber free of duty. The two clauses are the following:

"FREE OF DUTY.—Lumber, hewn and sawed, and timber used for spars and in building wharves. Timber, squared or sided, not especially enumerated or provided for.

"DUTIABLE.—Sawed boards, plank deals and other lumber of hemlock, whitewood, sycamore, and basswood, and all other articles of sawed lumber when planed or finished: for each so planed or finished 50c. per 1,000 feet, board measure."

There is certainly no ambiguity in these clauses All sawed lumber except hemlock, whitewood, sycamore, and basswood, is to be admitted free, and all planed and finished lumber is to be charged 50 cents per 1,000 feet. It is very likely that this part of the bill will pass, whatever may be the fate of the remainder. The Western farmers have grown tired of paying an ever-increasing tax in the way of stumpage to a few owners of pine lands, and the whole country has been slowly but sensibly aroused to the dangers flowing from the destruction of the forests and the denudation of the uplands which constitute the natural reservoirs of the country. We do not see any sufficient reason for taxing hemlock and basswood more than pine and spruce.

There seems to be very little that is good and a great deal that is irredeemably bad about the appointments which the President made on Wednesday for Collector and Naval Officer at Baltimore. From a private letter received by us from a citizen of Baltimore whose knowledge and judgment in the matter cannot be questioned, we quote the following:

"Mr. I. Freeman Rasin, who has been appointed Naval Officer of this port, has for at least eighteen years been the chief lobbyist in Baltimore. He has long been at the head of the most powerful of the local factions. Even among politicians of his own school he has acquired a reputation for unscrupulousness and faithlessness passing the ordinary measure of professionals. To carry his point he has never hesitated to cheat at primaries. Through his tools and by his orders the worst of the election frauds of the last ten years have been perpetrated. Every one can tell you of more or less well authenticated stories of his having sent for persons interested in legislation pending before the City Council and the State Legislature, and telling them that they would have to pay a precise sum to win. Of one such incident I was myself personally informed three years ago by a gentleman, of the highest character, upon whom the demand had been made. Either the Civil-Service Reform Association or the Reform League will doubtless take the matter up. Ex-Senator Groome is a respectable gentleman of mediocre abilities, entirely under Gorman's control."

Mistakes like these, after the Higgins and Thomas appointments have shown the character of all of Gorman's friends, seem entirely without excuse.

It really begins to look as though Ohio might become a decent State. The Legislature, with a Democratic majority in the Senate and a Republican majority in the House, has passed a law which provides that in the four cities of Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus, and Toledo the Governor shall appoint boards of commissioners, consisting in each case of four persons of good character, divided equally between the two parties, and that these Commissioners in turn shall appoint all the election judges and clerks, who must also be of good character and selected from the two parties. Ohio people congratulate themselves, apparently with good reason, that this system will put an end to the outrageous election frauds that have so long disgraced the State, which invited them by an election system worthy of a community of barbarians.

Saco is a Maine town of 6,389 people, which, used to be as free from disease as other places of similar size. The prohibitory law of Maine forbids the sale of liquors except for mechanical or medicinal purposes, and establishes in every large town an agency for their sale for such purposes. At a recent temperance meeting in Saco, official statistics were presented showing that in 200 days 16,000 prescriptions were put up at the local liquor agency, being an average of eighty a day. The effect of prohibition upon the public health evidently demands investigation.

The Senate is giving a good deal of time to the Blair bill, but the great importance of the proposition fully justifies the close attention which it is receiving. We are glad to see that the considerations which we have urged against the project during the past month are being employed with effect in Congress, as for example, by Senator Morgan, of Alabama, who has made a strong speech against the bill, citing the case of Connecticut. Senator Hawley sustained the position that the experience of his State is a forcible argument against the project, and laid proper stress upon the fact that its Board of Education considers the pending bill an unwise measure. General Boynton, the veteran Washington correspondent, says that there is no doubt that the better judgment of many Senators who do not come out prominently in opposition to the scheme is against the policy of the bill. A similar change of sentiment is clearly perceptible in the press. When the proposition was originally broached, many newspapers hastily accepted the plausible pleas in its behalf which were made by the Rev. Mr. Mayo and other friends of education, and advised the passage of the bill. Now that the fatal objections to the scheme are indicated, several of these journals have ceased to advocate it, others give it but a halting support, and still others, like the New York *Times*, admit that it would not be advisable to pass the bill.

Senator Ingalls, of Kansas, pointed out another radical defect of the Blair bill when he urged that Congress had no right to appropriate money for educational purposes which must go in large measure to the Northern States, which do not need it. We have urged that the bill should be defeated because its passage would be so demoralizing to the cause of education in the South; but Mr. Ingalls does well to show that its influence would be only less bad upon the North. The only device by which a cloak of constitutionality can be thrown over the measure, is to apportion the money among the different States in the proportion which the illiterates in each bear to the number of illiterates in the whole country. A Northern State with a small percentage of illiteracy, but a large total population, may thus establish a claim to a greater share of the fund than a Southern State with a large percentage of illiteracy but a small total population. Of the whole $77,000,000 which it is proposed to appropriate, New York would receive $2,721,066, or considerably more than the $2,503,170 allotted to Arkansas; Pennsylvania, $2,825,324, or almost two-thirds as much as South Carolina's $4,582,792; Ohio, $1,633,718, or not far short of half Louisiana's $3,945,051; and Massachusetts, $1,152,

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116, or nearly $160,000 more than Florida's $993,548. Senator Ingalls pronounced it "an act of grand larceny on the Treasury" to take out money raised by taxation and pass it around on such a scale. In the name of Kansas, he refused to have his State share in any such larceny. Senator Hawley has made a similar disclaimer for Connecticut. The Massachusetts Senators will probably feel bound, for consistency's sake, to support again a measure which they were persuaded hastily to favor two years ago, but the Boston *Herald* brings the encouraging news that the bill "is not likely to have the support of all the Massachusetts Republicans in the House of Representatives." Senator Evarts, who is bound by no previous committal upon the question, ought to repudiate all share in the subsidy on behalf of New York; but unhappily Mr. Evarts is now running for the Presidency upon the platform of "the old flag—and an appropriation."

The Atlanta *Constitution*, as the leading newspaper of a commonwealth which justly calls herself "the Empire State of the South," does little credit to either its State or itself when it—rather shamefacedly, we are glad to observe—pleads that the nation should come to the help of Georgia's schools. It is true that the public schools of Georgia fall far short of being as good as they ought to be, but it is also true that Georgia is abundantly able to make them worthy of so prosperous a State. Georgia, as the *Constitution* would be the last paper in the country to deny, is one of the richest States in the whole South, and is hardly surpassed by any in the steady and rapid development of its resources. Yet Georgia is doing much less toward the education of her children than other States which have not only less wealth, but also a greater load of ignorance. Florida in 1880 had only about one-sixth the population and less than one-eighth the resources of Georgia, while the percentage of negroes to all the inhabitants was about the same in the two States; yet Florida expended $172,178 upon her schools in 1884, and Georgia only $653,868, or not two-thirds of what she ought to have raised to keep pace with Florida. Mississippi, in 1880, had but three-fourths of Georgia's population, and only about half her amount of wealth, while nearly 58 per cent. of Mississippi's inhabitants were negroes, against only 47 per cent. in Georgia; yet Mississippi expended $803,876 upon her schools in 1884, or $150,000 more than Georgia. The *Constitution* really must not ask the country to believe that the State which it represents as being at all other times rich, progressive, and prosperous, becomes suddenly so poor, when it comes to the matter of raising a school fund, that it cannot do even as well as Florida or Mississippi.

Senator Frye's proposed Pan-American Convention reminds us, and was perhaps intended to remind us, of the similar step once proposed in a vague sort of way by Mr. Blaine. The Blaine scheme was shrouded in sufficient mystery to enable anybody to claim any advantages from it that the most lively imagination could suggest, without showing how they were to be gained. Mr. Frye's is open to the serious objection that it offers a plan for securing them. Among the declared objects of the Convention is the following:

"Second—Measures toward the formation of an American customs union, under which the trade of the American nations shall, so far as is practicable and profitable, be confined to American waters, and there shall be *a free interchange of the peculiar natural and manufactured products of each.*"

What on earth can Mr. Frye be thinking about? The most peculiar natural product of South America which Mr. Frye proposes to admit duty free is wool. This is the one thing whose admission free of duty would be likely to make the greatest commotion in the State of Ohio. What will the wool-growers think of Mr. Blaine when they read this?

The *Herald* publishes a very sweeping but obviously just decision of the United States Supreme Court, to the effect that the law of Congress which authorizes the arbitrary seizure of a merchant's books and papers by Custom-house officers is unconstitutional and void, being plainly obnoxious to Article IV. of the amendments which guarantees "the right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures," and also to Article V., which declares that "no person shall be compelled in a criminal case to be a witness against himself." This decision falls in very pat with Secretary Manning's able and thorough discussion of the machinery of the tariff laws, sent to Congress a day or two since, the purport of which is that the laws are not by any means sufficiently stringent to enable him to collect the existing duties on imported goods. And now comes the Supreme Court and sweeps away the main reliance for the discovery and proof of frauds and undervaluations which has been in force ever so many years. In view of this decision one's mind naturally reverts to the great blackmailing case against Phelps, Dodge & Co., which depended for its success upon a seizure of books and papers as arbitrary and ruthless as was ever known.

The tyranny and cruelty of which trades unionism is often guilty have seldom been displayed in a more repulsive light than in Newark to-day. The compositors employed by the *Daily Advertiser*, of that city, have not hitherto belonged to the Typographical Union, although they have been paid higher wages than the Union rates, and have had no complaint to make on that or any other score. A committee of the Trades Assembly recently waited upon the proprietor, and requested that the *Advertiser* office should be enrolled under the auspices of the Typographical Union, to which he offered no objection, provided the men desired to become members of the organization. The Committee, however, served notice that seven men who were employed in the office, including one who had been in its service for forty years, would not be admitted to the Union, because they abandoned a strike in which the office was involved about five years ago, when they returned to work without permission from the central authority. It thus became evident that the sole object of the movement to make the office a Union office was to punish these seven men for an alleged offence committed five years ago, to deprive them of their present means of supporting their families, and to turn them adrift with little chance of finding work elsewhere, as their names would be everywhere "posted" by the Union. The proprietor refused to consent to such injustice and inhumanity, as any man of proper feeling would have done, and the Trades Assembly promptly retorted by ordering that the *Advertiser* be boycotted. It is encouraging to learn that the American love of fair play is manifesting itself in Newark, and that the *Advertiser* is doing a brisker business than before, since this outrageous attempt was made to destroy it for simply doing its duty.

The Rutland (Vt.) *Herald* lately took a most gloomy view of the conditions and effects of farming life in New England. The familiar statement was again repeated that the farming class yields a larger percentage of insanity than any other, and this was accounted for on the ground that the average farmer and his wife and daughters are under-nourished, grievously overworked, and much subject to anxiety and nervous stress.

"To take a New England farm and make it pay means toil, incessant toil, early and late; physically the farmer, and especially the farmer's wife, is often severely overworked to the extent of a broken-down nervous system. The food of the farmer is no better, not always as healthful, as the food of mechanical city workers; and the fatigue, exposure, anxiety, and overwork of the average farmer is more than is ordinarily encountered by the city worker of the same intelligence," etc.

A correspondent of the *Evening Post*, which had reprinted the article, writes to that paper to say that twenty-five years of experience upon a farm, and much observation, lead a farmer's wife to very different conclusions. It is true that she writes of Connecticut and not of Vermont, but the conditions of the same class cannot be widely different in the two communities. No doubt there is difference in ease of living among farmers; a little advantage in point of capital, or intelligence, or even temperament, will cause that. The insanity results, however, if they were known, would be really significant of average condition, and the popular conviction certainly is that farming life does yield more than its due proportion of insane patients.

It may be doubted whether this conviction is well founded. We have before us the latest reports of the Danvers and the Worcester Lunatic Hospitals in Massachusetts, a State which, touching both Vermont and Connecticut, has very similar conditions of climate and soil. The males engaged in agriculture in Massachusetts amount to almost exactly 9½ per cent. of the whole male population. Yet of the admissions to these two hospitals during the last year reported the farmers numbered less than 6 per cent. of the whole number of males, while of wives or daughters of farmers, specified only in the Danvers report, the proportion was barely 3½ per cent. of the females. These proportions become more significant when contrasted with the returns from other classes of society. Laborers, for instance, furnished 19 per cent. of all males, and wives or daughters of laborers (reported from the Danvers Hospital only) supplied about 8½ per cent. of all females, while full 20½

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per cent. of the admissions of females to both hospitals were from the class of domestic servants. Finally, what may be considered most striking of all, is the fact that of the whole number (nearly 800) embraced in both reports, the proportion of patients of "no occupation" is a little more than 6 per cent. for men and a little less than 6 per cent. for women. The proportion of the whole population represented by each of these classes excepting the farmers, whose number is known by the census, must be a matter of estimate, but no estimates can disturb the conclusion from these reports that the farmers and their women-folk furnish very much less than their natural proportion of insane patients. The representation from the very small "no occupation" class, equalling that from the great agricultural division of society, calls to mind Dr. Robson Roose's paper on "Wear and Tear of London Life," in the last *Fortnightly Review*. Dr. Roose says, on the authority of "a distinguished American physician" (whom we take to have been the late Dr. James R. Wood), "that the number of the insane is greater in a community in proportion to the political and religious freedom of the population; that is, to the opportunity they enjoy of working out their own purposes, whether in relation to this world or the next, in the manner most agreeable to themselves. The explanation, of course, is, that in such communities the causes of insanity are always numerous and wide spread." This is a lightning-flash of insight to put beside the popular theory, the substance of which is that it is from lack of "causes of insanity" that farmers go mad.

The Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle*, discussing our recent contrast between the rapidity with which the political generation of the war period is passing away, and the length of time that the generation of Revolutionary soldiers and statesmen remained upon the stage, speculates as to the causes of the difference, and is inclined to conclude that "the lives of men who are foremost in affairs have been shortened rather than lengthened" during the century since the foundation of the Government. We think upon more careful investigation it would find another element, still more potent, in the earlier age at which the men of the Revolutionary period attained prominence than those of the Rebellion era. When the civil war broke out in 1861, Lincoln, Hamlin, and Andrew Johnson were each 52 years old; Fremont and Douglas were each 48; Seward was 60; Chase, 53; Cameron, 62; Stanton, 46; Greeley and Sumner, each 50; Wilson, 49; Fessenden, 55; Trumbull, 48; Wade, 61; "Thad" Stevens, 69; Banks, 45; Hendricks, 42; Curtin, 44; John Sherman, Morton, and Colfax, each 38; Grant, 39; Tecumseh Sherman, 41; McClellan, 34; Hancock, 37; Sheridan, 30; Seymour, 51; Tilden, 47; Hayes, 38; Garfield, 29; Logan, 35; Lamar, 36. Here are thirty-three men, then prominent in politics, or destined to prominence in the field, of whom a full third had completed their fiftieth year, and but three were under 35, while the average age of all was nearly 46.

On the other hand, when the Revolution broke out in 1775, Washington was 43; John Adams, then a delegate in the Continental Congress, 40, and his colleague, Thomas Jefferson, only 32; Madison, just entering on public life in Virginia, but 24; Monroe, a boy of 17, contemplating joining the patriot army the next year, and eight years later a member of the Continental Congress at 25; Hamilton, a college student of 18 in this city ready to be Washington's aide-de-camp at 20, and a member of the Continental Congress at 25; Rufus King, afterward United States Senator from New York as late as 1825, a Harvard student of 20, preparing himself to be an officer in the army at 23 and a member of the Continental Congress at 29; Charles Pinckney, afterward Congressman so late as 1821, a boy of 17, who was to be one of South Carolina's representatives in the Continental Congress at 19; William Jackson, afterward Secretary of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, a lieutenant in the army at 16 and Assistant Secretary of War at 23; while in the Continental Congress sat such already prominent men as John Jay, not yet 30; Robert R. Livingston, 28; Frederick Frelinghuysen, but 22, among colleagues nearly half of whom were men under 40. Without further multiplying illustrations, it is evident that the chief reason why men who were prominent in the Revolution continued prominent so long afterward that the last President of that school did not retire until 1825, was because they were as a rule so very young when they assumed public duties; while the chief reason that the politicians and soldiers of the Rebellion period are dying so much sooner after the close of the struggle is because they were very much older men than their prototypes of the last century when the struggle opened.

We shall probably hear, before many days, a great outcry from the Gloucester fishermen against the preparations making by the Canadian authorities to protect their fisheries under the revived treaty of 1818. One of the clauses of this treaty forbids our fishermen to trade with the Canadians and Newfoundlanders for bait, ice, and other articles indispensable for fishing. When the advocates of a fishery commission pointed out this matter to the Gloucester fish protectionists they replied that this trade was just as advantageous to the Canadians as to our people, and that trading was a natural right anyway, and that if they were not allowed to go ashore to buy bait, etc., the sellers of those articles would paddle their canoes out to the fishing fleet and do the trading beyond the three-mile limit. But now we are told that the Dominion authorities will take steps to prevent this contraband traffic by stationing cruisers along the shore to keep all the bait at home. It is difficult to see how this trouble is to be met. We keep our people from trading in the most innocent articles, except when and as our laws permit. We are not allowed, for instance, to buy a ship of foreign build under any circumstances, nor is a foreign-built ship allowed under any circumstances to carry a passenger or a pound of freight from one American port to another. In point of principle there is no difference between this kind of prohibition and the prohibition of bait trading and ice trading in Newfoundland. Upon the whole, it seems likely that the additional cost of fishing will amount to at least 1 cent per pound, which is the rate of duty on fish concerning which all the row is made.

The Dilke scandal in England grows a little more mysterious every day. How the Judge came to grant a divorce on the husband's report of the wife's confession, without any corroborating testimony, has never been clearly explained, but we suppose that the failure of the wife to put in any defence operated as a default on her part, and enabled the husband to get judgment against her. But then Dilke was a co-respondent, and did not either appear or offer any evidence, and yet, although the judgment against the wife indirectly convicted him, the charge against him was somehow—nobody seems to know how—dismissed. As matters stand, the proceeding has all the air of a divorce by collusion between the parties, and the public in England evidently so regards it. Under these circumstances, it is in England the duty of the Queen's Proctor—the law officer of the Crown in the Admiralty and Divorce Courts—to intervene, and have the proceedings reopened, and this he will probably now do. According to the latest accounts nobody ought to desire this more than Sir Charles Dilke himself, for he is now said to have all along had a complete answer to the charge against him, but was prevented from making it by the advice of the wicked Joseph Chamberlain, who insisted on his keeping silent. But this was such obviously bad advice that if offered in this country, by Blaine to Logan for instance, it would be looked on as an attempt to "knife" a hated rival. Sir Charles Dilke is now said to see his mistake, and to be anxious to make his statement. That he should not have seen that a truthful denial of an act of great baseness was always seasonable and becoming, to use no stronger words, is very extraordinary for a man with as much experience of life as he has had.

The new rôle of Lord Randolph Churchill as head of the Irish Orangemen is in all respects worthy of this really remarkable mountebank, who was seven months ago coquetting with the Parnellites. But his performances in Ulster the other day can only help the Home-Rulers by disgusting the British Radicals. No party in England can ever afford to make much of Orange support, because the Orange creed contains only one article, and that is that Protestants should have all political power and Catholics none. Every English statesman who has ever tried to improve the condition of Ireland has had to face their hostility and defy their threats.

The formal surrender of the Greeks to "superior force," which was announced in England on Tuesday, will form another sorry episode in Greek history. The frantic appeal they have put forth to the English and Irish to save them from the British fleet, commanded by a Prince of the blood, will make their situation a little more ridiculous. They are now in the position before Europe of having again tried to better themselves by pretending to be going to fight, in the hope that the Powers would make Turkey give them something in order to keep the peace.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 17, to TUESDAY, February 23, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Republican Senators decided in caucus on Wednesday that the Edmunds resolution relative to the respective powers of the President and the Senate in the matter of nominations should be favorably reported in open session of the Senate. Mr. Edmunds's resolution covers these points: First. That the Senate does not approve the answer of the Attorney-General in refusing to give information as to suspensions. Second. That the Senate cannot confirm persons nominated to succeed suspended officials where the reasons for suspension are not given. Third. That the Senate does not approve of the removal of ex-Union soldiers without cause. The resolutions were presented in the Senate on Thursday.

The present situation in the contest between the President and Senate is stated as follows: The reports that the Republican Senators are not in accord as to the resolutions presented by Mr. Edmunds are not well founded. Whatever differences of opinion there may have been in the first instance as to the policy to be adopted, the Republicans are now a unit in their support of the resolutions. These resolutions themselves are a compromise, and represent the concession that had to be made to those who were opposed to a policy of wholesale rejections. They have been misinterpreted in a good many quarters, as is apparent from the character of some of the press comments outside of Washington. Only those nominations are to be rejected as to which information, when asked, is refused, and it is quite clear that all nominations will be rejected where the information, meaning by that term the "papers," is withheld. Care will be taken not to call for information where the Republicans do not have what they call a "good case." The papers will be called for in a great many post-office cases. It is probable, for instance, that the Postmaster-General will be asked to furnish the papers in the case of every Presidential postmaster in the State of Virginia.

In the Senate on Wednesday a bill was introduced appropriating $250,000 for a Grant monument in Washington. It was passed on Tuesday.

The Education Bill was again under discussion in the Senate on Thursday, and was opposed by Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kan.) and Mr. Coke (Dem., Tex.). Mr. Riddleberger (Read., Va.) spoke in its favor, and Mr. Evarts followed on Friday. It is believed that the bill will be defeated.

The Senate Commerce Committee has decided to report favorably upon the bill to permit the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company to bridge the Arthur Kill, but the height of the structure has not been determined.

The Republican members of the Senate Judiciary Committee will report against the confirmation of Mr. Goode as Assistant Attorney-General.

The House on Thursday passed the Fitz-John Porter Bill by a vote of 171 to 113. On Friday a resolution was passed authorizing the President to furnish a gold medal to Joseph Francis, of New York, for his distinguished services as an inventor of life-saving appliances.

In the House Coinage Committee on Wednesday Mr. Norwood, of Georgia, who had voted with the Bland men, announced that his constituents opposed a further coinage of silver dollars. The recent decision to report adversely on Mr. Wait's resolution for a suspension of coinage was then laid on the table by a vote of 7 to 6.

The Ways and Means Committee on Tuesday morning had an animated discussion on the various propositions that were submitted as to the manner in which the Morrison Tariff Bill should be considered. The Republicans insisted that the Committee should hear delegations of manufacturers and others who might be affected by the measure. The Democrats insisted that the hearings given by the Tariff Commission and since were sufficient to make known the views of the protectionists, and that it was important that the bill should be reported to the House as soon as practicable. Finally the Democrats made what they call a concession, and permitted the Committee to adopt a resolution that hearings will be given to parties in interest until March 12, when the Committee will proceed to act upon the bill. This delay is much greater than Chairman Morrison had expected or desired.

There is to be determined opposition to the bill. Mr. Morrison says he has presented the bill to give the Democrats an opportunity to determine whether or not they will support their party platform.

Secretary Manning reports that the Morrison Tariff Bill will reduce the revenue only about $12,000,000 instead of $20,000,000. When the bill was reported it was stated that the reduction of taxes would be about $5,000,000 by the extension of the free list, $10,000,000 by the sugar cut, and $5,000,000 by other changes. Mr. Manning finds that as it is stipulated that the reduction in the sugar duties shall not be applicable to countries laying an export tax, and that 74 per cent. of the sugar imported into the United States comes from Cuba and Porto Rico, both imposing export taxes, the reduction will be only $2,000,000.

The House Naval Committee has practically agreed upon a comprehensive plan for the reorganization of the navy. It is proposed to build six cruisers and a number of torpedo boats.

Rear-Admiral Jouett telegraphed the Secretary of the Navy from Aspinwall on Friday that the United States steamship *Galena* had sailed for Key West, Fla., with the steamship *City of Mexico* as a prize. The *City of Mexico* was bought some time ago by friends of ex-President Soto, and has on board a part of the expedition which has been preparing for some time to descend upon the coast of Honduras.

United States District-Attorney Dickson was attacked in Salt Lake City on Monday evening by a son of George Q. Cannon and two other men, who struck him in the face with a stone. His injuries are not serious.

About two o'clock on Monday morning the Chinese residents were driven out of Oregon City. They were wakened by a mob who drove them on the steamboat *Latonia* and paid their fares to Portland. Forty-two, in all, were driven out. They were employed in woollen mills.

In the Virginia Senate on Wednesday the bill prepared by Lieutenant-Governor Massey to facilitate the settlement of the public debt of the State was introduced. It authorizes the Governor to appoint three citizens of Virginia as a Board of Commissioners to confer with the bondholders, and to acquaint them with the material and financial condition of Virginia, and explain the facts which make the settlement under the Riddleberger act just and equitable, and its acceptance by them necessary for the protection of their interests. The Commissioners are empowered to take steps to arrange with West Virginia for a just proportion of the State debt as it existed prior to the 1st of January, 1861, to be borne by West Virginia and not by Virginia. The bill further provides that the amount secured to be paid by West Virginia shall be divided pro rata among the holders of West Virginia certificates which have been issued under the different acts of the General Assembly of Virginia, or which may be issued before the 1st of January, 1887.

In the New York Assembly on Thursday an amendment to a civil-service bill, that no competitive examinations be had for soldiers and sailors, was defeated 39 to 66.

The strike in the Pennsylvania coke regions has virtually ended in a victory for the strikers.

Henry Watterson, editor of the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, is improving in health and will probably recover.

John B. Gough died in Philadelphia on Thursday afternoon. He was born August 22, 1827, at Sandgate, Eng. When a boy of twelve he came to this country, learned the bookbinder's trade and earned a fair salary for a boy. He became intemperate, and, on account of his mimetic powers, was very popular with his companions. At one time he appeared on the stage in Boston. The theatre was soon closed for want of money, and Gough lost his earnings as well as his position. He was married soon afterward, and established a bookbindery of his own, but his intemperance increased, and his wife died within a year. Gough signed the temperance pledge in 1842, at the suggestion of a Quaker named Stratton, and then began to speak at temperance meetings. His natural eloquence gained him a great reputation. Since then he has lectured all over this country and Great Britain. It is estimated that more that 300,000 people have signed the pledge by reason of his efforts, and that at least 9,000,000 have heard him speak. He lived in a comfortable home at Worcester, Mass.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone has assumed the office of Lord Privy Seal. This is taken as an indication that he has difficulty in filling that Cabinet position.

Parliament reassembled on Thursday. Mr. Gladstone stated, in the House of Commons, that, after the Government had concluded the financial business they had to place before the House, they would be able to state a part, if not the whole, of the Irish measures they intended to introduce. He expected, he said, to be through the financial business about March 22. Mr. Gladstone announced further that the Government had no intention of renewing coercion in Ireland. Alluding to the foreign policy of the new Government, Mr. Gladstone said he would follow the Eastern policy inaugurated by his predecessor, Lord Salisbury.

Mr Parnell was on Thursday night questioned with reference to Mr. Gladstone's statement that the proposed Irish measures would not be introduced until March 22. He replied: "The situation, as it existed after the defeat of the Conservative Government two weeks ago, has not been altered in any way by the declaration of the Prime Minister. I think it is only reasonable the new Ministry should be allowed the time Mr. Gladstone asks for the consideration of these proposed measures with regard to Ireland." Mr. Parnell again insisted that the home-rule question must precede all other Irish measures, and added: "I am further of the opinion that if the land question be left to the determination of an Irish Parliament, landlords will obtain a more favorable settlement than if they be thrown upon the mercy of the present Parliament at Westminster."

The leading members of the Conservative party met in London on Thursday, to confer upon the course the party should pursue in regard to Irish affairs. Lord Salisbury presided. Lord Randolph Churchill and 150 other prominent Tories were present. The meeting was very enthusiastic. Lord Salisbury predicted a union with the Conservatives of the section of the Liberals which follows Lord Hartington and Mr. Goschen. He urged the Conservatives to do all that was possible to bring such a union into effect. Some of the speakers commented severely on Lord Randolph Churchill's attack upon Catholics and his intimacy with the members of the Parnellite party. The meeting resolved to make home rule a test question in the House of Commons, and for this purpose will support the Parnellites in their demand to have it precede land reform in the consideration of the House.

In the House of Commons on Monday Mr. Gladstone announced that the Government did not intend to suppress the Irish National

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League. In moving the appointment of a select committee on procedure, he said it was the Government's intention to facilitate business rather than to adopt clôture measures. Captain O'Shea met with a chilling reception in the House on Monday. It is asserted that Chief Secretary Morley has so instructed the police and military authorities as to render it virtually impossible to effect evictions.

In the House of Commons on Friday night, during a discussion on a vote for the Irish constabulary, Mr. Dillon expressed the strongest desire to make smooth Mr. Morley's path, because, as he said, he knew that Mr. Morley wished to leave Ireland as soon as possible. Mr. Morley replied in an unconcerned manner, repudiating Mr. Dillon's motive of sympathy. He said that the question how long English ministers would rule Ireland was rapidly approaching a solution one way or the other. Loud Parnellite cheers greeted Mr. Morley's remarks

The impression is gaining ground in London that the present Cabinet will prove unworkable, and that it will be impossible to hold it together. Mr. Chamberlain denies that there is any dispute or difference of opinion concerning the Government's policy toward Ireland between himself and his colleagues in the Cabinet.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Local Government Board, has quarrelled with his Radical colleague, Sir Charles Dilke, and abandoned him utterly. The reason given by Mr. Chamberlain's friends is, that Sir Charles refused to adopt Mr. Chamberlain's advice to testify under oath that he was not guilty of the offences charged against him as co-respondent in the Crawford divorce suit. On the other hand, friends of Sir Charles say that he was dissuaded from testifying by Mr. Chamberlain. They reassert the innocence of Sir Charles.

Sir Charles Dilke met the Chelsea Liberal Council on Friday, and declared that he had no intention of resigning. By a vote of 294 to 6 the Liberals declared their confidence in him.

The hearing in the case of the Socialist leaders, Hyndman, Burns, Champion, and Williams, who are charged with inciting to riot, contempt of law, etc., in connection with the recent demonstration in London, was begun in the Bow Street Police Court on Wednesday morning. The counsel for the Government quoted from speeches made by the accused, showing that they incited the mob to breaches of the peace. They will probably be prosecuted for misdemeanor. The hearing was adjourned one week.

A great Socialist meeting, numbering 50,000, was held in Hyde Park, London, on Sunday. Speeches were made from three stands. Burns delivered an effective oration, in which he deprecated any attempt at looting or rioting, attributed the previous rioting to mockeries of clubmen, and appealed to the audience not to take their ransom prematurely, nor to give the police spies a chance to traduce them. Hyndman, Williams, and Champion spoke in their usual strain, but without using violent language, although earnestly demanding a social revolution in the positions of capital and labor. When the meeting was ended the crowd moved in an orderly manner to the exit at Hyde Park Corner. There, without warning, bodies of mounted police made a furious rush into the crowd, especially in the vicinity of the leaders' wagonettes. Many blows were dealt, and the police were hooted. The temper of the crowd was rising, but in response to the appeals of the speakers they behaved admirably. Thirty thousand people have applied to the Mansion House in London for relief.

The Chief of the Metropolitan Police force of London has resigned on account of the recent severe censures growing out of the riots. A thorough reorganization of the force is probable.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Local Government Board, was visited on Tuesday by a deputation of unemployed workingmen, who stated their grievances and asked what the Government meant to do to relieve the prevailing distress. Mr. Chamberlain, in his reply, deprecated riots and all similar forms of disturbance to manifest the needs of help. He said he was opposed to emigration as a means of relief, unless the distress were chronic. This opposition was based on many grounds, not the least among which was the fact that the colonies would refuse to welcome large numbers of paupers, because, among other reasons, their influx would cheapen the labor market. Mr. Chamberlain added that he hoped the Government would soon be able to establish the British laborer upon the soil he tilled. Pending the accomplishment of this, he (Mr. Chamberlain) would not cease urging the local boards to start relief works, such as paving and improving the streets, to furnish the means of subsistence to such as were in absolute need.

At the meeting of the Chambers of Commerce in London on Tuesday, Mr. Forwood, Conservative member of Parliament from Lancashire, and a prominent shipowner of Liverpool, presided. He attributed the present depression in British trade to the appreciation of gold, assisted by the competition of foreign products and manufactures turned out by skilled labor improved by technical education. The Dublin Chamber of Commerce offered and the Glasgow Chamber seconded a resolution "against weakening the union between England and Ireland," because of "the disastrous nature of the results which would ensue to the commercial and trading interests of Great Britain."

The Earl of Aberdeen, the new Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, made his state entry into Dublin on Saturday. There was little enthusiasm. Some students in the procession were attacked by the crowd and wounded.

Lord Randolph Churchill arrived at Belfast on Monday and was received with unbounded enthusiasm. Many processions with Orange colors paraded the streets. The crowd unharnessed the horses from Lord Randolph's carriage and drew it through the streets. When he rose to speak, the cheering lasted more than five minutes. He said it lay with Ulster to say whether Ireland should remain a part of the empire. He denied that the Parnellites were true representatives of the will of the Irish people. As for Mr. Parnell, his only title to be continued as leader in the party lay in actions of which no one could be justly proud. By playing upon the terrors of the peasantry and by means of brutal outrages upon human beings and animals, he had secured five-sixths of the Irish members of Parliament. He appealed to all, regardless of creed, to declare in favor of a freer and closer union. If the appeal failed, he said, he would not mind leaving the issue to the people of Ulster. He believed the storm would blow over, however, and that the Union would emerge stronger than it had ever been. The meeting adopted a resolution to oppose Nationalism and to call upon the people of England and Scotland for help.

Mr. Parnell, in an interview on Tuesday in regard to Lord Randolph Churchill's Irish tour, said his visit was likely to end in smoke. It was not generally known that the proportion of Catholics to Protestants in Ulster was forty-nine to fifty-one. Lord Randolph was a most contemptible politician. He would have taken either side just as suited his purpose at the moment. He was virtually on the National side and against the Orangemen just before taking office. He was extremely unpopular with the Orangemen then. His militant orations may be summed up in one word—"talk." The Orangemen do not intend to fight. The last Orange demonstration in Ulster proved this. As soon as a few Orangemen were pricked with bayonets by a handful of policemen, all bolted. Lord Randolph, he added, was no more violent than was to be expected. Mr. Sexton, in an interview, said the speech rendered Lord Randolph impotent to affect English opinion. His position on the Irish question was one of bad faith. Everybody knew that if the elections had made Lord Salisbury independent of the Orange members, Lord Randolph would now have been engaged on a home rule bill.

The Irish party will hold a meeting at the Cannon Street Hotel, London, on St. Patrick's Day. Mr. Parnell will preside. The object of the meeting will be to issue to England the ultimatum of the Irish people concerning home rule. As the date selected for this event precedes by but five days the 22d of March, the date set by Mr. Gladstone for the commencement of the Government's work on Irish legislation, it is believed that the Nationalist leader means to force a crisis on the home-rule question. Mr. Parnell has also arranged to have his party hold fifty meetings throughout Ireland simultaneously with the one he will preside over.

Lord Tennyson has sent a despatch to Senator Hawley, thanking him for the stand he has taken on the subject of international copyright.

A committee of the French Chamber of Deputies on Friday, by a vote of ten to seven, rejected a proposal for the expulsion of the princes, and by eleven to six passed a motion giving the Ministry power to expel them if necessary.

Prince Jerome Napoleon (Plon-Plon) publishes a letter in Paris in which he protests against the proposed proscription of the French princes, and insists that such treatment would be unfair. The Bonapartists, he declares, were defenders of the Revolution. What the republic requires to increase its strength and prestige, he says, is reform of its methods of government. The expulsion of the princes would tend to the destruction of the republic. Prince Napoleon also takes occasion to criticise the manner in which the President is chosen. He says that the people should be allowed to elect their own Chief Magistrate, and that the method which gives the power of selection to the National Assembly should be abolished. The manifesto has created a sensation in Paris, and the press demand the expulsion of Plon-Plon.

A bill has been introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies to enable the city of Paris to raise a loan of 250,000,000 francs to be used in public works.

The Greek Ministers of War and Marine having threatened to resign unless war against Turkey was declared, owing to the popular eagerness for hostilities, the Powers sent a final note to Greece before blockading her fleet in Salamis Bay. The Sultan refused to grant any concessions to Greece.

The British Minister at Athens telegraphed on Tuesday that Greece had formally submitted, but Premier Delyannis will prepare a protest to the Powers that Greece submits only to *force majeure*. Mr. James Bryce, Under Foreign Secretary, said in the House of Commons on Tuesday night that the Government did not entertain the opinion that the present was a favorable time to approach the Sultan with a view to securing accession of territory to Greece. The statement was cheered by the Conservatives.

The Portuguese Ministry have resigned. The King has summoned the Progressists to form a new cabinet.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) says: "The prosecution is imminent of numerous Germans who style themselves doctors on the strength of diplomas purchased in America. There are 3,400 such doctors in Berlin alone."

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RESPONSIBILITY IN THE NAVY DEPARTMENT.

THE plan of reorganizing the Navy Department outlined by Secretary Whitney in his annual report has been formulated in a bill now before the House Naval Committee. The favorable impression which we had formed of the plan makes us regret all the more to find introduced in it a most objectionable feature, the effect of which will be to increase the very evil which it is intended to obviate. This is a provision for a "Board of Council," to be composed of the chiefs of the several bureaus or departments, together with three officers of the navy to be appointed by the Secretary. In reading this section of the bill we feel as if meeting an old familiar face, which has appeared at our door from time to time with a modest tender of services, now in this capacity and now in that, ever since the abolition of the old Board of Navy Commissioners in 1842. In the hands of Mr. Herbert's committee the Board has thrown off its old modesty, and asks for nothing less than the decision of all questions of naval policy which the Secretary may submit to it. Its former tenders have been so varied in their character, and made under so many guises and aliases, as to leave the impression that it would be satisfied to perform almost any service, not positively menial, if it could only secure the much-coveted privilege of a footing in the Department.

At the first blush nothing could appear more reasonable or more natural than the organization of such a board. Secretary Whitney has himself taken pains to inform us that he knows very little about the workings of the complicated machinery which he has in charge, and that he deeply feels the need of sound professional advice. What better plan can be devised than that Congress should require him to choose three officers of rank and experience to join their powers to those of his chiefs of bureau, and thus enable him to substitute the combined wisdom of seven experts for his own inexperience? It seems almost cynical to hint that anything sinister can lurk under so prepossessing an exterior. But when we proceed to inquire more closely into the grounds for the board, we find a suspicious circumstance which no one has ever ventured to explain. It is that the proposed law only directs the Secretary to do what he already has ample power to do, and does actually do whenever he finds it necessary and practicable. He can of his own motion organize any kind of an advisory board he wants. He can to-morrow order his chiefs of bureau to form themselves into a board, just as other Secretaries have done in times past; and if he thinks that three other officers would be useful in the board, he can command their services without a word being said by Congress. Wise men look with distrust upon legislation to do that which is already done without legislation; and if Secretary Whitney ever lies awake o' nights, he can very profitably employ his thoughts during the still small hours in pondering over the question why he should want Congress to legislate him into the performance of a very simple duty. We would assist his meditations on this subject by first pointing out what will appear to be the strongest reasons in the affirmative, and then showing how insufficient they are.

There are certain passages in the Secretary's annual report which seem to point very strongly to the desirableness of such a board as that now in question. The case of the *Omaha*, which he there cites, is just to the point. This ship was surveyed at a navy-yard and found to need extensive repairs. The repairs were ordered as a matter of pure routine, without any searching inquiry into their advisability. Before they were finished they cost as much as the building of a new steel cruiser, and resulted in turning out a ship which "could neither fight nor run away from any cruiser built contemporaneously by any other nation." It is supposed that nothing of this kind could have occurred had the Secretary referred the matter to a competent board. And if asked why the Secretary does not avail himself of his existing power to refer the matter to a board whenever it arises, the answer would no doubt be, that such a board would not be invested with the responsibility of one ordered by law.

The fallacy of all this is shown by the fact that only two weeks ago Secretary Whitney himself put a far more effective plan into execution without impairing his own responsibility. It was reported to him that the *Juniata*, now lying at the Brooklyn Navy-yard, required a suspicious amount of repairing. Having the case of the *Omaha* in mind, he declined to approve the repairs as a matter of routine, and sent his constructor-in-chief to make a personal examination and report. The constructor performed this duty under a sense of personal responsibility to the head of his Department which a board could never be made to feel, and the result was a large reduction in the estimates for repairing the ship. It is quite safe to predict that the case of the *Juniata* will not be parallel to that of the *Omaha*. Yet the two Secretaries who brought about these results were equally unsophisticated in naval affairs, and worked with the same organization and with the same kind of men. The only difference is in the spirit which animated the two heads of the Department. Like master like man, is true from the President downward through every grade of the public service. When the master looks upon his department as a political machine, or runs it as a mere matter of routine, he gets one kind of service; and when he makes clear to his subordinates that their official heads depend upon their fidelity to the public interests, he gets a different kind of service from the same men.

The great objection to the proposed board is that it does away with the individual responsibility of each subordinate to his chief, and of the head of the Department to the public, and establishes a system under which no one person will be responsible for anything. It is Congress saying to the Secretary of the Navy: "We recognize the fact that you know nothing about naval affairs, and we therefore give you seven good men and true whom you will consult on all questions of naval policy, and who will give you the best attainable advice. You will have nothing to do but preside at their meetings and follow their counsel." Then when a new Secretary comes into office, he will find the board all ready to receive him and take care of him, and will be saved from all necessity of learning anything about such technical matters as ships and guns.

The Navy Department is the last one on which any such plan should be tried. It is the one in which class feeling and class interests are the strongest, and in which these interests are most apt to clash with those of the public. A majority of the seven members of the board will be officers of the line, which means that they will be under a moral and social pressure of the strongest kind to do all they can for the promotion of the interests of these officers as a class. The very fact that the public know so little about naval affairs makes this the easier to do, and at the same time makes it the more necessary that the Department should have a single responsible chief, incapable of being moved by the influences which are sure to surround him.

THE PROHIBITIONIST FALLACY

WE print elsewhere a letter from a Baltimore Prohibitionist touching the duty of the State toward liquor-dealers and manufacturers whose business is ruined by prohibitory legislation. The United States Circuit Court in Kansas has decided that they are entitled to compensation, and we think it right. But Mr. Lawrence Turnbull furnishes us with an elaborate analogical argument showing that they are entitled to nothing. Their claim, he says, is no better than that of manufacturers injured by changes in the tariff, or that of lottery-dealers whose business was in many States destroyed by prohibitory legislation, or that of gas companies damaged by the introduction of electric lights, or that of the owners of opium dens shut up by the police, or that of butchers ruined by the prohibition of butchering within city limits, and so on.

It is always extremely difficult to argue with a Prohibitionist on any topic connected, however remotely, with alcoholic drinks, because he will insist on assuming, what the great mass of civilized men resolutely refuse to concede, that the manufacture and consumption of intoxicating drinks, either in large or small quantities, is *per se* a crime, or an anti-social act which ought to cover its perpetrators with infamy. No matter how often and how solemnly you may warn him at the outset of the discussion that you will grant him nothing of the kind, and no matter how cheerfully he may promise not to argue from it, he is sure to work it in before long, either directly or indirectly, covertly or openly, as his minor premiss, and ask you, with an air of innocence, how it is you are opposed to the legalization of brothels when you do not object to the licensing of taverns, or why you are so fierce against murderers and robbers when you are so mild with men who sell whiskey to the fathers of families.

We believe we have more than once intimated to Mr. Turnbull that we cannot discuss prohibition with him on this basis, or on any basis which does not contain the admission that the moderate consumption of alcoholic drinks has been approved time out of mind by the great majority of the human race, and is

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not now regarded as sinful or harmful by the majority of the wisest and best men of all civilized communities. But here he is at us again with his "opium den" and lottery illustration, and his criminal and "guilty" and "inhuman" and "*unpatriotic*" distillers, brewers, and dealers; and wants to know how it is we do not agree that the total destruction of their property without any compensation would be "less than exact justice for them," and why we wish to see them taken better care of than the people whose business is incidentally injured or ruined by legislation.

Well, the reason is, briefly stated, this—that in the cases Mr. Turnbull mentions, such as the gas companies injured by the electric light, the manufacturer injured by the tariff, and the butcher by his exclusion from the city limits, the loss is caused by an improvement effected, with or without the aid of the State, in the very business in which the sufferers are engaged. Gas companies suffer from electricity because electricity gives a better light; the manufacturer suffers because the lowering of the tariff gives the consumer his goods at a lower rate; the butcher suffers that his customers may have better meat; the stage-owner, to use an illustration of our own, because the railroad furnishes better transportation. In almost every case in which incidental injury is inflicted on property by legislation, the injury is due to the recognition or support by the Legislature of some better way, some way more conducive to public safety and comfort, of doing the business in which the injured property-holders are already engaged. For this every rational man who goes into a business of any kind must be and is prepared. The introduction by others of improvements on his processes, which may ruin him, is one of the risks of his calling which he always has in mind. But for the prohibition of his business as a public nuisance he is not prepared, and ought not to have to be prepared, and against this risk the Constitution protects him.

Now, applying this rule to the Kansas distillers and brewers, and warning Mr. Turnbull that we will not submit to having them treated as notorious criminals, for whom total confiscation is even leniency, what do we find? Why, that a business which has been carried on from time immemorial, with the approval of all civilized communities, and with the full sanction and protection of the law in this one, and in which large amounts of capital have been invested, is suddenly and directly stopped by law. The law does not injure the brewer or distiller "incidentally," by encouraging some better mode of making beer or whiskey, or by encouraging the production of some equally attractive and more wholesome drink. It simply tells them that the State has come to the conclusion that their trade is injurious and must cease, and offers no compensation for the deception caused by the long period of State approval. Nothing of this kind has ever been done to any other calling pursued through long periods with general approval and believed by the bulk of Christendom to be in itself harmless. The State may have a right to change its mind suddenly about any man's lawful business, and prohibit it, but it has no right to change it at his expense, and cannot escape its responsibility to him by calling him names or telling him ruin is too good for him.

HOW THE FASHIONS ARE STARTED.

EVERYBODY knows how powerful is the influence of fashion in matters of dress; how rapidly an article which has ceased to be fashionable gets to look odd and even ugly in the eyes not only of fashionable people, but of people who care little or nothing about the fashions; and how surely, even if slowly, a decided change in fashion forces its way even among the humblest and most secluded. When trousers came in as a substitute for breeches they exposed the wearers to the utmost ridicule, but they not only held their own in the fashionable circles in which they first appeared, but finally drove the breeches out of the remotest hamlets and farm-houses, and a man in breeches, until the recent knicker bocker revival, felt very foolish or bashful. Courts have until lately always been the primal source of fashion. The dressiest king or queen in the leading court—that of France until lately—showed the dressy people of the world what they ought to wear every season, by wearing it, though its material and make-up were doubtless always settled in consultation with or on the suggestion of a tailor or dressmaker. The French court never since the Revolution exercised such an influence on female fashions as during the Empress Eugénie's short reign. She loved dress, and spent enormous sums on it, and under her there arose that new and striking social phenomenon, the male dressmaker, who tells women what will suit them and gets it ready for them. Since her dethronement, dressmakers and tailors in Paris have been thrown on their own resources, having no official personage to try their devices on. President Grévy hardly cares what he wears more than President Lincoln cared, and somewhat the same thing may be said of his wife. As regards the leading politicians in France, it may be said in general terms that they are considered in the Paris clubs to be among the worst dressed men in the world nowadays.

In England the Prince of Wales has been for the last twenty-five years the great promulgator of fashions for men and the Princess for women, and he has succeeded in some degree in bringing Frenchmen within his jurisdiction. English fashions are, in fact, more or less "the rage" among the pleasure-seeking portion of French society, which cultivates monarchical traditions and "le sport." But the French tailors and dressmakers do not succumb to any foreign influence, and still try valiantly to maintain the old French influence in matters of dress. A writer in the *Temps* has recently been giving an interesting account of how they do it. The leading tailors in Paris appoint a committee every season, whose duty it is to get up a "fashion plate," and this settles, both for the Parisian tailors and those of the provinces, what changes are to be made in men's clothes for that season. But the dressmakers in Paris have no organization like that of the tailors, and do not meet and provide fashions through a committee. Nevertheless every season witnesses the most startling changes both in the material and the cut and the ornamentation of women's clothes—changes far more complicated and difficult than any which take place in those of the men.

Under the Empire a fashion was started by trying a dress on the Empress, or one of her immediate circle, the Princesse de Metternich, or the Duchesse de Morny, the Maréchale d'Albuféra, or the Comtesse de Hon, at a ball or a court reception. If it was liked, it set the fashion for the season, and the court ladies wore it as a sort of livery. Nowadays the same thing is done through a circle of about twenty fashionable women, who employ the same dressmaker and meet in his "*salon d'essayage.*" They are of all parties: Legitimists of the Faubourg, Imperialists, Orleanists—in fact, a little of everything except Republicans—and they sink their differences when they meet at the dressmaker's, to discuss his proposals. What they adopt carries the season. Occasionally they succumb a little to the influence of foreign courts; for instance, it is announced that orange is to be the dominating color in female toilettes during the coming season, owing to the fancy for it felt by a Russian princess of the blood. And the soft woollen stuffs which French women have been lately wearing are an importation from England, started by the Princess of Wales to encourage the suffering woollen industries of the North.

The fashion once set in this way, its diffusion among all classes and conditions of women now takes place with a rapidity formerly unknown. This is done through the intervention of the great stores, known as "Magasins de Nouveautés." A dress, for instance, has been approved of and worn by a well-known fashionable woman. All her set soon get the same thing. The society papers describe it and the smaller dressmakers of the capital copy it, and it makes its way among the dressy well-to-do people of lower social grades. But this, after all, carries it but a very small distance. It has to penetrate to every town and hamlet in France, and be seen within six months on every shop-girl, and maid-servant, and seamstress, and even peasant girl in the more populous districts. This is brought about by the Magasins de Nouveautés, which, when a dress is once fairly in vogue, order from the manufacturers immense quantities of stuff resembling it, but at about half the price, and the manufacturers supply it often at a loss, fearing to lose other orders. Copies of the dress are then turned out in such numbers and at such prices that every woman who cares for "the mode" soon has one, at a cost which a sewing-girl can afford. By the time this comes to pass, we need hardly say, the women of the world have dropped it.

MISERY, DISCONTENT, AND AGITATION IN ITALY.

LENDINARA, January 4, 1886.

IT is generally held that a revolution to effect a change of government would be fatal to the interests, probably to the very existence, of this country. Yet with such we are threatened, not by organized socialists or conscientious republicans, but by misery such as I verily believe does not exist anywhere else on the face of the civilized globe. The poorest class of workmen in the cities are badly enough off, but a roof over their heads, a pavement under their feet, and wooden

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or stone walls around, they do find, albeit the overcrowding is fearful, viewed from the point of health, decency, and morals. But if you go to the outskirts of any town or city in Tuscany or the Marches, where the division-of-profits (*métayer*) system exists, you will find numberless families crouching together on the bare muddy soil, with Indian-corn canes for all wall and roof. Some few of these hovels have a brick chimney, others no fireplace at all. When you inquire what is the food of the family, you will find that it consists solely of *polenta* (Indian meal), often of very inferior quality, or damaged by damp and mildew. The water, drawn from the nearest ditch, full of animal and vegetable matter, is not only hurtful to the health generally, but, combined with *polenta*, produces the fearful disease known here as *pellagra*. Statistics have been compiled, inquiries made, fierce discussions held as to the origin of this comparatively new and awful scourge. I can pretend to throw no new scientific light upon the subject, but from minute researches extended over various provinces, in one case for ten years, I can affirm that I have never seen man, woman, or child affected with *pellagra* (save in the case of hereditary disease) without finding that the patient had been living exclusively on *polenta* and water, good, bad, and indifferent. Asked by a friend of mine, a member of Parliament, to assist him in collecting information for a new code of health for the rural districts, I accepted those of Venetia, Padua, and the Polesine, and, as far as *pellagra* went, every new inspection confirmed the *polenta* theory. As for the dwellings, "from bad to worse" must be the verdict. In the outskirts, and even within large cities such as Adria, I found Naples in miniature, minus the underground grottoes: two, three, and even four families stived in a room, six and even eight in a hovel; no drains of any sort; human and animal filth accumulated at the door; scrofula, consumption, asthma prevailing, and records of annual diphtheria and smallpox. But where the use of wheaten or rye bread prevailed, or, as in some parts of Venetia, barley-and-rice soup, *pellagra* was absent; and when you remember that those affected by this fell scourge go through every form of madness—melancholy, imbecility, idiocy to raving lunacy—it will be understood that exemption from *pellagra* almost sounds like health.

As the friend—a medical man—at whose request I had undertaken the tour was extremely anxious on this head, we revisited together most of those places where *pellagra* specially prevailed. One set of cases struck him especially. Dropping down (literally) from a broad, white, high-road along one of the embankments of the Adige, we came upon some hovels scooped out just below and brought forward on the level. There were no pavements, but the walls were of bricks and the roofs tiled. The *medico-condotto*—that is, the parish doctor who accompanied us—told the story of each family. He was at that moment in search of the wife of the landlord, if such a dignified name can be given to the owner of the hovels, and, as no one could find her, it was supposed she had drowned herself, having attempted this every time she had been removed from the lunatic hospital at Venice: the husband himself and the children were all *pellagrosi*. In another house there were two idiot children who had inherited *pellagra;* in another an old man lay, not mad enough to be sent to the hospital, nor yet sane enough to be allowed to go out to beg alone, in sad contrast to his healthy young son, a conscript just returned for a holiday! All these people that I have mentioned lived exclusively upon *polenta;* there was but one healthy family in the row, consisting of a husband and wife and five children of various ages, and it turned out that the father of these was a fisherman, who told us that he and his boy, obliged to stand in the water every morning, drank a "dram" (which you must understand is about a halfpenny worth of *sciampagnin*, a horrible concoction, but distilled, I believe, from the very rags of the grape-skins). Then they told us that they ate up all the fish they couldn't sell. So, considering that every other surrounding of misery, dirt, and nakedness was alike, as these alone were exempt from *pellagra*, here is another piece of strong circumstantial evidence that *polenta* is the guilty party.

Another decided proof of the fatal effects of exclusive living on Indian meal may be deduced from the fact that in all the hospitals where the doctors are allowed to treat their patients as they choose, "regardless of expense," they simply put them on a diet of meat, raw or very slightly cooked, white wheaten bread, and a certain amount of spirits or good red wine or Marsala; and invariably, when the case has not reached the last stage of lunacy, in a few months, and often in a few weeks, the patient recovers, to relapse again as soon as he returns to the old régime. In one commune that came under my knowledge, the doctor, a rough-and-ready sort of fellow, tired of the constant grumblings of the municipal authorities every time he went to them for an order for a patient to go to the hospital (the daily cost of each person being about a franc), made them an offer to send no more patients to the hospital (save those too far gone at that moment to be treated at home) if they would undertake to allow him to supply common wine and white bread (for there was no butcher in the town) to those in the first and second stage. The authorities agreed, and the plan has succeeded perfectly—the doctor, whose parish is not a large one, seeing himself that the patients in question do eat the bread and drink the wine themselves. If further proofs be wanting, they may be found in the fact that after the inundations of 1882 *pellagra* decreased at least fifty per cent., because the poor inhabitants, though compelled to live in their damp and tumble-down dwellings, were fed on soup, white bread, and meat twice a week during the four winter months.

Now, I am treating of general misery and of this special form of it in normal times and seasons, when, saving two months in the year, the agricultural populations can reckon on earning eightpence a day a man, sixpence a day a woman, fourpence a child (women and children, though, are only used for hoeing, weeding, plucking corncobs, grapes, and tending silk-worms in the mulberry districts). But take such an exceptional season as this: before all the corn could be sown heavy rains set in, then snow, then thaw, then snow followed by frost, and then snow once more. With the exception of chopping wood, no work has been done in these northern fields since a week before Christmas Day. Such slight jobs as could be done are performed by the ploughmen and herdsmen resident on the soil. Though these are by no means in an enviable position, still they have a house over their heads, and a certain portion of wood, maize, and wheat is allowed them; but the day laborers who live from hand to mouth, what can they have been living on for the last six weeks? Savings they cannot have possibly; work cannot be performed, out-door relief there is none—only in the very large towns are there soup kitchens, and these rarely gratuitous. Monks and friars have been stripped of their possessions, there is no State charity and precious little private; therefore, in order to live, these multitudes must either go daily from house to house begging for scraps of broken food, or they must steal, and the fact is they manage to keep body and soul together by a judicious combination of both systems. But perhaps some one will ask, Are there not such things as congregations of charity? There are such, but they are a disgrace to the name even as are the so-called Monti di Pietà, or pawn-shops. I have examined their accounts, being authorized to do so, and have felt shame that wealthy municipalities should assign such a miserable pittance to be doled out by unwilling distributors; and these small sums, after all, even if properly distributed, only reach poverty-stricken widows or young and helpless orphans. How, then, can any one be surprised that crime is not only on the increase, but that Italy carries off the unenviable palm of standing first on the crime-list after Spain in Europe? Often and often when visiting the Neapolitan prisons of Naples, on finding the same prisoner in the same ward after an interval in which I knew he had been released, the same answer to my question, "What have you been and gone and done again?" has been proffered: "Ho fatto una piccola mancanza tanto da dormire e mangiare" (I have committed a very little fault just to eat and sleep). So I suspect do others than Neapolitans during these hard times, but these are only the very poorest and the most ignorant.

Englishmen have often said to me, "Why don't your people do as we do, agitate and agitate and agitate until they get the vote and can then make their own laws?" and most surprised they are to learn that fifty per cent. of those who possess the vote don't use it. Nor is this abstention confined to the clerical party, for, if the truth be known, the Catholics do vote under the rose, nor has Leo XIII. taken any special measures to prevent them; on the contrary, his attitude seems to be, "Vote where you please as long as you vote for the right persons; only don't ask me to sanction your so doing." It is the working classes and peasants who don't take the trouble to go to the urn, who say, "Whether Tom, Dick, or Harry is elected deputy, whether the Liberal, Retrograde, or Moderate party are in a majority, I find no difference either in the amount of taxes I pay, or in the protection I get from the police—which is none at all—or in the administration of justice, if ever I have the ill-luck to need it. By going and voting I only make enemies, for it is nonsense talking about the vote being secret: everybody knows how everybody votes, and you can't please everybody, let alone yourself." These convictions are so deep-seated that no reasoning or persuasion can alter them. Only on special occasions, when the populace has been wrought up to an unusual degree of wrath, can you get such a vote as was given to Professor Sbarbaro lately in one of the quietest, most highly cultured cities of Italy, Pavia. There, "just to spite Depretis," who was supposed—and the suspicions are grounded on many precedents—to have secured the absolution of the most fraudulent bankrupt that the Italians have known, and the severe punishment of a half-cracked professor (who showed up the minister's young wife and the wife of another minister, both of whom make and meddle too much in politics), over nine thousand votes were given to the said professor, then in prison for libel. He was duly elected, and immediately released, and has now taken his seat in the Chambers.

The reason that lies at the bottom of contempt for parliamentary institutions may be found in the fact that Parliament passes no laws which people care about in their daily life. Were an Italian Dickens to arise, certainly his first theme would be the Italian Parliament, which has outdone any Anglo-Saxon institution in the art of "how not to do it." With all the gaunt misery which I only hint at and don't attempt to describe, just imagine that not one single act of Parliament has been passed to better the condition of the absolutely poor or the working classes, not even to "give unto the poor that which is

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his." Twenty-five years ago the reform of charitable institutions was promised, and their wealth is far more than enough to open hospitals for the *pellagrosi*, and to enable the communes to feed such as may yet be saved, to create orphanages, alms-houses, and places for the absolutely destitute who are too ill or too old to work; to open industrial schools, really popular loan banks, to assist mechanics and small farmers whom a little capital would save—to do everything, in short, that is necessary to alleviate the inevitable suffering created by the sins of omission and commission of the whole community, and to give such moral training and technical education as shall render it impossible for future generations to show such a hideous list of crime and of misery.

A law which weighs most hardly upon the poorer classes, and which was pointed out as a crying abuse in the good old days of Cavourian Piedmont, is the law that allows a stupid or revengeful policeman or prætor or magistrate, or who not, to cast a man, woman, or child in prison, to keep him there weeks, months, and years without ever bringing him to trial, very often without his knowing what he is accused of. There are at the present moment, according to the latest statistics, taken previous to the agrarian agitation, 20,000 untried prisoners in the various parts of Italy; you may be quite sure that not more than half, if so many, will ever see the inside of a court of justice. Now, apart from the injury and injustice done to these people and their families, it should be noted that each individual costs the state a franc per day, without, of course, calculating the expense of prisons, jailers, and the ordinary outputs of such establishments. So another seven millions goes in wasteful cruelty. This system of preventive imprisonment was to have been abolished in 1860, but it suits Government and often private individuals to get persons put away "for a convenient season"; and as ministers and authorities are irresponsible, no action can be brought for false imprisonment by the unfortunate victims when they are set at large.

At the present moment two political trials are creating considerable sensation. The first is being held at Rome, eight individuals being there on trial for a "republican conspiracy." Now the authors, one very old and one very young man, Count Marini and Francesco Albini, are two of the most harmless mortals imaginable, but aggravated by the present state of things; and, a paper in which they wrote having been suppressed, they took to the old system of conspiracy, made plans of prisons in order to liberate the *future* members of the Universal Republican Alliance, and distributed inflammatory pamphlets in the barracks. Only one thing prevented their transforming monarchical into republican Italy, and that was that they could not get a single person of note, even among the "Puritans," to listen to their silly schemes. When such people as Aurelio Saffi, the old Roman triumvir, the stanch and devoted disciple of Mazzini, with his band of enthusiastic followers, will have nothing to do with secret conspiracies, but maintain that the republic will come of its own accord when the majority want it, you may be quite sure that the throne and Constitution are in no danger. If, on the discovery of the inflammatory proclamations, the authors had been arrested, tried, and punished, no one would have felt any interest in them save compassion for their absurdity, while every one admits that a crime it is and will remain to conspire for the *forcible* overthrow of a Government established by popular will. But you see these eight men, of whom only two are concerned in the plot, have already suffered a year's imprisonment, and hence are regarded as victims.

A far more serious trial comes on in Venice, and that is of the supposed chiefs of the agricultural agitation in Mantua and Verona. If your readers can call to mind Mr. Arch's career from the time when he was considered the chief of the peasants' rebellion to the present, they will understand what these twenty to forty men have been *hoping to begin to do*, namely, by combination to raise the scale of agricultural wages, without having, poor souls, the slightest notion how to set about it. First, they had no funds, but they held a few meetings, talked very fiercely about their misery, wrote some fierce articles in two newspapers unknown to fame, advised all the peasants who listened to them not to work for less than a certain sum of wages, and threw out hints that there would be fresh strikes at reaping time. I must add that the revolutionary work distributed by the leaders was Mazzini's 'Duties of Man,' which evidently the public prosecutor has never read, or assuredly never would have included it in his "acts of accusation." Be that as it may, syndics, proprietors, prefects, commanders of military corps, heads of police, met in council to devise some means of averting the awful catastrophe threatening property and the state. Of course all the culprits and their suspected accomplices were seized, handcuffed, and thrust into prison. Several hundreds were arrested, but, no fault being found against them, and it being impossible to invent one, by degrees they have been let out, and in the course of a year (for it is a year also since these preventive arrests were made) the numbers have dwindled down for the Mantuan province to about twenty-two, for the Venetian to about ten. This trial is indeed creating great excitement, the absurd "act of accusation" being published by all the newspapers. In any other land than Italy every one of the accused would be absolved, but here it is still a crime, punishable with two years of imprisonment, to concert in order to raise the price of wages unless it be proved that such rise is necessary. Now, as all who are called upon "to prove" are paymasters, the poor men may come badly off. This calamity is due, like the rest, to the failure of members of Parliament and successive governments to abolish the present law on strikes and to substitute a fair one of masters and men. Can you wonder, therefore, that in a large meeting of workingmen delegates held at Mantua, it was decided unanimously that workingmen should keep clear of all political parties, and carry on their work of resistance and emancipation on their own account, and without any interference or assistance from Government?

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

INDEMNITY FOR PROHIBITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The principle underlying Judge Brewer's recent decision in the United States Circuit Court at Topeka, Kan., that the State is bound to indemnify individuals for losses resulting from the passage of a prohibitory law, which is so thoroughly endorsed by the *Nation* in its last issue, is, at first sight, an equitable one; but if examined closely, it will, I think, be found to be entirely too broad for any consistent, equitable, or practicable application.

The principle is that if the State practically, though not actually, confiscates private property through any legislation for the public safety, or advantage, or convenience, it is in all cases bound to make reparation to the individual the value of whose property has been thereby depreciated or destroyed. Is this principle sound either in morals or economics? And *does* its violation amount to "legalized robbery by society in its organized capacity"?

It is admitted that if the State *actually* takes and uses or destroys the property of an individual for the public benefit, as when a dwelling is demolished to make room for a street or other public improvement, the individual is to be indemnified. But where the injury is consequential, and not direct, it is impossible to lay down any rule of compensation that is equitable and at the same time practicable. In morals, no distinction can fairly be drawn between prohibitory legislation, so called (though all law is prohibitory in some aspect), and merely regulative legislation, which has the same effect in destroying the values of private property. A few changes in the tariff would as certainly destroy the value of certain manufacturing plants and industries as an enforced prohibitory law would destroy the value of breweries and distilleries. In the one case, as in the other, the public good is the motive and the justification of the law—the destruction of private property values only an incidental, but an inevitable, result; and in the majority of cases it is not a result of which the Legislature or the courts are bound in morals to take any cognizance. Society in its corporate capacity has never entered into any contract with the individuals composing it to maintain all economic and social conditions unchanged, so that private property rights may remain unimpaired; and it violates no principle of justice in its constant legislation, which is all the while practically confiscating the property of some individuals, so long as the legislation is honestly designed for the public good, and is carefully considered, and the injury which results is inevitable and indirect. The Emancipation Proclamation destroyed at one stroke untold millions of property; but though in this case the injury was direct, it was never proposed by the advocates of abolition to compensate the owners of slaves, even in the loyal States, or where the owner was loyal. The laws suppressing lotteries, which were once legal in several of the States, bore disastrously on many individuals, but no one suggested that the State should make good their losses. The *Nation* probably approves the prohibition of opium dens, but I should be surprised to learn that it had recommended that the worthy proprietors of these establishments should be reimbursed their sunk capital.

The legislation which authorizes the building of railroads throughout the country in every instance destroys or greatly impairs the value of vast amounts of private property by changing the channels of trade. The city ordinances requiring the use of electric lights depress gas stocks. The prohibition of butchering within municipal limits has ruined many a butcher. A law, such as has been proposed, requiring cattle to be carried in a certain class of cars, would destroy an immense capital invested in the present transportation trade. Similar cases are almost innumerable; but there is no practical remedy for private losses brought about in this way, and the victims have to content themselves with their individual share in the benefits which result, or are supposed to result, to the public from the legislation which works such havoc with their property interests.

If the principle approved by the *Nation* was to be allowed, how could it be equitably and consistently applied? If the brewers and distillers are to be compensated for losses, so must be all the dealers in drink, wholesale and retail, all the hop, rye, wheat, and barley farmers, all the machinists, the coopers, and the various subordinate industries which depend upon the death-dealing trade. And if all these are to be indemnified, why not the lottery merchants, the opium venders, the owners of disused turnpikes, and of depreciated gas stocks, and of railroad stock ruined by competing lines authorized by the Legislature; and all

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the thousand and one industries destroyed or depressed by the shifting of trade resulting from changes in the law?

If any individuals are to be excepted from this law of compensation, surely those who are engaged in the drink traffic should be. They will meet with much less than exact justice if the whole value of their property is destroyed. They have, through public indifference, been allowed to engage in a trade which is fearfully injurious to society, and which has entailed incalculable loss upon every individual in the State; estimating by the lowest standard, the money value, this trade has inflicted upon the State a destruction of values far, immeasurably far, in excess of any possible loss which will be visited upon the victims of a prohibitory law. They have engaged in this trade, not in ignorance, but with a full knowledge of its deadly character; no considerations of patriotism or humanity have restrained them from their war upon society. The State has tolerated them, and has, thus far, been a partner in their guilt; it has, however, been sufficiently punished already by the results of the trade, and is not, in justice, to be further mulcted, that its enemies may go scot free.

In this connection it must be remembered that the *whole* of society has not tolerated these social pests; but a large minority has always fought them with all the means at command. This trade has never respected the protests of this minority; and now that this minority is slowly growing into the majority there is no sense or justice in asking them to indemnify their foes, whom they have so fairly warned that they would destroy them, when they once obtained the power. If society turns upon them and rends them, it is only doing unto them as they have done unto society. The whole trade now defies the law wherever it has been passed, though it has all the sanction that any other law has, namely, the will of the majority expressed through the ordained channels. If, according to the fine-spun theory of Judge Brewer, they ever had a right to indemnity, the majority of liquor-dealers and manufacturers in the prohibitory States have lost it by their violation of the law.—Respectfully,

LAWRENCE TURNBULL.

BALTIMORE, February 1, 1886.

THE MARYLAND APPOINTMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your Baltimore letter reminds one of the man who called on Hercules, instead of putting his own shoulder to the wheel. If the people of Maryland find fault with the appointment of Higgins and Rasin, they have none but themselves to thank for these obnoxious persons. The appointment of Higgins was recommended by all the Maryland delegation in Congress with one exception. If citizens of that State insist upon sending to Congress persons in whose statements no confidence can be placed, they must expect to suffer for it. To blame the President for every appointment is unreasonable. He has important and responsible duties to perform, the discharge of which occupies his whole time. No President has ever given closer or more conscientious attention to them than Cleveland. Of necessity, he has to leave the selection of persons to fill the minor Government offices to his Cabinet officers and subordinates. They, in their turn, cannot be expected personally to know every person appointed, and they must rely upon somebody's advice. Upon whose advice can they rely more naturally and properly than upon that of their own party associates? The idea seems to be that the Administration has nothing to do but make appointments. It came into office, however, not only with pledges as to civil-service reform, but with pledges to do all in its power to revise the tariff and suspend the coinage of silver. Both these are matters of the utmost importance to the welfare of the country, and, in fact, deserve a great deal more attention than they have received.

Your correspondent complains that elections in Maryland are carried by fraud. It is very easy to assert this; but if it be true, as very likely it is, why not prove it in the courts? Tilden won his first laurels as a reformer by vindicating in court the title of Azariah C. Flagg to the office of Comptroller of the State of New York, in the face of fraudulent returns. When the Tweed Ring became unbearable, our people rallied and drove it from power. If your correspondent should say that the judges in Maryland cannot be relied upon to administer justice impartially, the same remedy is open that was open to us when we suffered from Barnard, Cardozo, and McCunn. The Bar Association was formed; it united in pressing proceedings for the impeachment of the obnoxious judges; money was raised by subscription to defray the expenses of the proceedings, and the result was absolute success. Fraud cannot be successfully concealed if it is opposed by vigilance and persistent courage.

Many people seem to think that the President of the United States is as absolute as a Turkish Pasha, and as powerful as omnipotence. If they would only remember that this is a popular government, that the representatives of the people ought certainly to have some voice in its administration, and that the Executive ought certainly to be able to rely to some extent upon their statements, the critics would be a little more moderate in their expressions. To be sure, parties in this country have done little else for ten years but fight over patronage and talk about obsolete questions. But a party has a higher function than this, and the Administration deserves praise, not blame, for devoting part of its time to the revenue and currency of the country. CIVIL-SERVICE-REFORM DEMOCRAT.

NEW YORK, February 20, 1886.

FOREIGN METHODS OF CUSTOMS-VALUATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The investigation of undervaluations by the Senate Sub-Committee on Finance at the New York Custom-house brings the matter into such prominence that a brief description of the methods employed in France and Germany may perhaps be of value.

In both countries the object of the customs laws is, by a detailed enumeration in the laws themselves of the objects on which duties shall be imposed, and of the rates of those duties, to reduce the discretion of the customs officers within the narrowest possible limits. To do this, specific duties have been adopted wherever possible. But in a complicated customs law, which imposes duties on a great variety of objects, it is, of course, impossible to exclude altogether ad-valorem duties, in which case alone this question of undervaluation can come up. Where ad-valorem duties are thus unavoidable, the French system is as follows: The declaration or entry of the importer is to be taken as the valuation on which the duty is to be assessed. If, however, the customs officers believe that there has been an undervaluation, they have the right to take the goods themselves at the valuation given by the importer, with an additional five per cent.; and, after paying such sum, to sell them for the benefit of the Government. (L. 4. Floréal an IV. and L. July 2, 1836). This is certainly an efficient means of preventing undervaluation, but in many cases may work injustice to the importer, and may result in loss to the Government, as goods will not often, at a forced sale, bring a fair price.

The German method is not so simple or so arbitrary. The law governing the matter is the old German Customs Union law of the first of July, 1869 ('Bundesgesetzblatt des Norddeutschen Bundes 1869,' p. 317, No. 30). This was adopted as the law of the present Empire by Article 40 of the present Constitution. Section 93 of this law treats of valuations for the assessment of ad-valorem duties. Here, as will be seen, the French law has been copied, but important modifications have been made. The declaration or entry of the importer, which he is obliged by the law to make, is to be the basis of the valuation on which the duties are to be assessed. If the customs officers consider such declared valuation to be too low, they have the same right as in the French law —*i. e.*, they may take the goods at the declared valuation, with an additional five per cent., and, after paying such sum to the importer, may sell them for the benefit of the Government. But both the customs officers and the importer may, if they prefer, ask to have an appraisement made of the goods by experts. Of these there are to be two, one to be designated by the importer, the other by the local customs officer. If these two experts cannot agree, they are to appoint an umpire. If they cannot agree in the appointment of such umpire, he is to be appointed by the President of the Court of Commerce, or, where there is none in the locality, by the presiding judge of the civil court of first instance. Now if the decision reached by these experts shows that the actual value of the goods does not exceed by five per cent. the declared valuation, the duties are to be assessed on such declared valuation, and the costs of the appraisement are to be paid by the customs office. If, however, the appraised value does exceed the declared value by at least five per cent., the customs officers may make use of their right of purchasing the goods at the declared value with an additional five per cent., or may assess the duties on the appraised valuation; while if the appraised valuation exceeds the declared valuation by *ten* per cent., the rate of the duties to be assessed is to be increased fifty per cent. In both these cases the importer is to pay the costs of the appraisement.

By this method of ascertaining valuations the rights of both the Government and the importer are protected. Both are represented in the tribunal making the appraisement, and both will hesitate before calling for such an appraisement on account of the costs which the losing party must pay. Further, the procedure is very simple; there is no appeal; and the result will in all probability be more satisfactory than it would be were the appraisal made simply by Government officers, either alone or in conjunction with merchant appraisers selected by the Government, as ours are now. For in this case the tendency will always be to favor the Government at the expense of the individual. This is always so where such questions are decided by professional officers. Again, with the salaries now paid to our examiners, who are the only responsible appraising officers that inspect the goods, it is impossible to obtain men capable of determining the real value.

Secretary Manning says, in his report on the "collection of duties," that the buyers of the large importing and jobbing houses in New York "receive twice or even three times as much as is the range of salaries paid to examiners in the New York Custom-house who examine similar articles." (Report, page 22.) By the German method, on the contrary, persons of expert knowledge make the appraisement. These could readily be obtained by our system, which, in theory at least, makes service as a merchant appraiser, like service on the jury, obligatory, and allows one appointed to act in such a capacity to get rid of

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this duty only by the payment of a fine.—I am, yours respectfully, FRANK J. GOODNOW.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE, NEW YORK, February 13, 1886.

THE SILVER SITUATION IN A NUTSHELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I understand the situation, the Government has vast accumulations of silver dollars for which there is practically no demand, and therefore is in the position of a manufacturer who has an overwhelming stock of goods on hand for which he finds no demand. I understand, too, that the silver States and Territories shun the buzzard dollar as the Republicans say the Democrats do soap and water. I further understand that these same silver-producing regions are the most eager to force the Government to buy more silver (raw material) and coin more dollars (manufactured product), and that in their efforts they have many able helpers, Senator Beck, for instance.

If the above statements are substantially correct, there can be no argument which will lead a business man to fall in with any party asking the Government to continue the coinage of the silver dollar. His first impulse (and it would be reinforced by his most mature conclusions) would be to stop the coinage, and of course to stop the purchase of any more silver bullion. We always have the raw material (silver bullion) in the open market, and the machinery in the mints; and if ever the people want more silver dollars, they can be turned out on a week's notice.

Would Senator Beck do differently in his own business? Suppose the Senator had been for years buying $4,000 worth of leaf tobacco monthly, to turn it into plugs for chewing. Suppose there had been little or no demand for the plugs, and that all his warehouses, barns, sheds, and other storage were choked with bales, bags, kegs, and barrels of plug tobacco. Would he go right on buying the leaf tobacco? Suppose a lot of politicians and tobacco-leaf growers should call upon him, wrap him up in an American flag, and beseech him to go on in the glorious work of making plug tobacco (while they worked their own teeth exclusively on chewing-gum). Would he be likely to do so? Why should the Government manage its affairs with less sense and judgment than Senator Beck does his? Why should Mr. Beck demand that it should?

It seems to me, as it must to most level-headed business men, to be the clear duty of Congress not only to stop the coinage of silver dollars, but to melt down into silver bullion a large part of them now on hand, sell the bullion, and put the proceeds back into the Treasury, charging the loss to the nation's experience account.

Respectfully, MANUFACTURER.

MANSFIELD, OHIO, February, 1886.

THE POLICY OF YALE AND HARVARD: A COMPARISON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Toward the end of the last century Dugald Stewart thus characterized the unprogressive tendencies of certain European universities: They are ". . . not without interest to the historian of the human mind. Immovably moored to the same station by the strength of their cables and the weight of their anchors, they enable him to measure the rapidity of the current by which the rest of the world is borne along."

I have recently attempted to estimate, by comparison, the rapidity of the modern educational current which has carried Harvard to the position of a first-class university—with no small sense of shame, as a graduate of Yale, that it should stand as the representative of that stationary buoy which marks the spot from which the rival college has been wafted forward by the winds of progress. Till 1865 these colleges were almost equal in undergraduates, in the faculties, in graduate students, in popularity, prestige, and influence. In all of these respects Harvard has since distanced its more conservative competitor.

It is but a weak and ignorant criticism that complains of faults, with no effort to display their causes and suggest their appropriate cures. In the present case, the question of cause is mostly a question of differential comparison. In 1865 there was little practical difference between the two colleges, either of government or of instruction. Theoretically more liberal with regard to elective studies, Harvard was at that time too poor to develop the system to practical maturity. So far as location is concerned, the advantage was, and always will be, on the side of Yale. The freedom from the proximity of a great and wicked city, the more cosmopolitan tone of the students, and the accessibility to the American metropolis, are positive advantages which will always weigh in the estimation of parents and guardians. But, in spite of such natural superiority, the administration of Yale College has been unequal to the task of developing a policy which will suffice to keep her abreast of the times. Its apologists call this policy a "safe conservatism"; but when the spell of after-dinner eulogy has passed away, it becomes patent that our college has indeed been preserved, and this is all.

The first great change accomplished at Harvard coincides exactly with the beginning of its progressive era. It had already, in 1810, shaken off the obsolete system of college government under which Yale persisted till 1872, and in 1851 it became no longer necessary that certain clergymen and others should sit among the overseers, to which body they were summoned *ex officio*, with no reference to the duties they were supposed to perform. But in 1865 the graduates were invited to choose the entire Board of Overseers. The results of this policy have fully justified its adoption. Thirty gentlemen of distinction, influence, and ability are now the custodians of the College trusts, and responsible for their administration. Under their management the University has displayed a progress unparalleled in the history of modern education, and the necessary funds have flowed in freely from the alumni whose representatives they are.

Yale's policy has been just the opposite. In the year of grace 1885 the influence of the Yale alumni in the election of a feeble minority of the Corporation has been denounced by the College treasurer as "inexpedient," and the display of interest in a recent election has led to its characterization as an "unseemly contest." He would have us understand that the graduates are the "beneficiaries" of the College, not its founders nor even its supporters. They have no claim to any voice in its management. In this respect Yale is where Harvard was in 1851.

The second cause which has determined the progress of Harvard is the great extension of optional studies which has taken place under the administration of President Eliot. It is not my purpose to enter into any argument of the merits of the optional system. It has existed at Harvard for forty-five years, during the last fifteen of which it has had broad extension and thorough trial. Facts speak for it. It is undeniably popular among both students and instructors. It has been denounced by Yale's venerable triumvirate and their backers as wasteful and demoralizing. Yet they yielded so far to popular clamor, some five years since, as to formulate the system of limited election which now prevails in the two upper classes. If elective studies are good, why were they not adopted years ago? If, on the contrary, they are bad, why adopted at all?

The following table shows, for the college year 1885-86, the number of hours weekly which the student can devote to the studies of his own choice:

HOURS OF ELECTIVE STUDIES (PER WEEK).

	Yale.	Harvard.
Freshman Class	None	9
Sophomore "	"	All
Junior "	9	"
Senior "	13	"

In this respect, then, Yale stood till five or six years ago just where she stood in the eighteenth century, and stands to-day almost exactly where Harvard stood in 1841. Of course the opportunities of choice are far greater at Yale to-day than they could be at any American college forty-five years ago; but they are still far inferior to the advantages which Cambridge now affords.

Subjoined is a table showing the courses given in the Academical Department of each university, and the number of hours of instruction offered weekly in each course:

	Yale.	Harvard.
Semitic Languages	1	17
Indo-Iranian languages	4	12
Greek	13½	39½
Latin	17½	37½
Greek and Latin Philology, etc.	....	6
English and Rhetoric	10	24
German	15	20
French	18	26
Italian	6	10½
Spanish	6	10½
Philosophy and Ethics	11	25
Political Economy	4½	14
History	11½	24
Roman Law	1½	4½
Fine Arts	....	10½
Music	....	14
Mathematics	30½	42½
Physics	4	23½
Chemistry	2	24
Natural History	11	49½
International Law, etc.	1½	....
Linguistics	½	....
Hygiene	1	....
	170	434½

In other words, the Harvard undergraduate has the allurement and opportunity of over two and a half times the amount of instruction that is offered by Yale. In this respect the latter is somewhat behind where Harvard was in 1871, when 168 hours were offered in the elective courses alone.

Thoroughness of instruction is a more difficult factor to estimate, and one which I approach with great diffidence. I shall be contented with a table of comparison showing the courses given in political economy, which, in importance to the citizen, yields to no other science. At Harvard the instruction is given by a professor, an assistant professor, and an instructor. At Yale one man performs all these functions and is Professor of Social Science as well. The time occupied by each course is reduced to the number of hours per week annually offered:

YALE.		HARVARD.	
Elementary course.	1½ hrs.	Elementary course...	3 hrs.
Longer elementary course.....	2 "		
		History of economic theory.....	3 "
		Economical history of America and Europe.....	3 "
		Tariff legislation.....	1 "
		Financial legislation.	1 "
Discussion and investigation.....	1 "	Discussion and investigation.....	3 "
		Independent research *say*.....	3 "
For Seniors.....	4½ hrs.	For Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors..	17 hrs.

From this it is apparent that something more is offered at Harvard than a merely superficial knowledge of a subject which few men have the time to pursue in after life. Yale now devotes scarcely more time to the subject than Harvard did in 1872.

It may be well to note in passing that while psychology is a *required* study for four terms at Yale, political economy is an *optional* study, which can be pursued at utmost for but two. It is difficult to discern the principle on which this discrimination is based, unless, indeed, that

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otherwise a smaller attendance would flatter the one course given by the President of the University!

There can be little doubt that these facts explain the ever-increasing flow of students toward Harvard alongside of the decreasing numbers at Yale. The former offers greater and better facilities for study, and we can blame only human nature if parents, guardians, and ambitious young men go where they can get the most for their time and their money.

It cannot be said that it is easier to enter Harvard than to enter Yale. I was recently assured by a Yale graduate, who has prepared many young men for each college, that it took the average boy a year longer to prepare for the former than the latter, and that the examinations were, if anything, more strict and severe. It used to be said that any man who could pass the Harvard entrance examinations could graduate with very little work. It seems that in former years there may have been some foundation for this assertion, but it is as emphatically contradicted by the statistics of late classes. In the table below are the average percentages of those receiving degrees in the various classes:

	1870 to 1874.	1875 to 1879.	1881 to 1884.
Yale	76.	75.	75.
Harvard	93.	76.	74.

It will therefore be seen that out of 100 freshmen but 75 graduate at Yale, and but 74 at Harvard.

I have endeavored, in the foregoing, to point out some of the essential differences between the administrations of our two greatest universities. The result of these two policies has already been displayed in the wonderful increase of Harvard and the stationary position of Yale. Yale needs not only reform, but a reformer. The latter position can be filled only by the President of the University, who must be a man possessing the qualities indicated in my previous letter. It will not do to cherish a time-worn superstition that this person must necessarily be a Yale graduate, a college professor, or a clergyman. Untrammelled by any such prejudices, it is the duty of the Corporation to call the fittest man to the position, wherever and whosoever he may be. There are two men, both of whom have once been numbered with the Yale Faculty, who are eminently fitted for the task. Both of them have won international reputations as administrators. Either of them is worth at least ten thousand dollars a year to the University. I do not think that the New York alumni will permit a lack of funds to stand as an excuse for not calling one of them.

EDWARD D. PAGE.

February 7, 1886.

THE VIRGINIA COUPONS DECISIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The dissenting opinion referred to in the *Nation's* article on Virginia coupon bonds will be found page 330 114 United States Reports. In the last cases there were no dissenting opinions filed, the minority of the court allowing themselves to be bound by the majority opinion in the cases of 1884. This renders the position of the bondholders stronger, in that they need not fear a continuing dissent, finally resulting by change of court in a reversal, as happened in the legal-tender cases.—Very truly,

JOHN H. MORISON.

40 WATER ST., BOSTON, February 18, 1886.

Notes.

GINN & CO. will begin next month the publication of a *Political Science Quarterly*, a review devoted to history, economics, and jurisprudence, and edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia College. Primarily it will concern itself with the investigation of questions of present interest in the United States, and the endeavor will be made to have the treatment intelligible to readers who are not specialists. "But the editors," says the prospectus, "by no means take the position that we have 'nothing to do with abroad.'" Further, "they will impose no tests of political or economic orthodoxy," but (a most wholesome check on windy debate) "every article will be signed; and every writer who alleges facts not commonly known will be expected to cite his evidence. The editors will neither take unsupported statements on faith, nor ask the public to take such statements on authority." The first number will contain an introduction by Prof. Munroe Smith, and articles on "The American Commonwealth: Changes in its relation to the Nation," by Prof. John W. Burgess; "Legislative Inquests," by Frederick W. Whitridge; "American Labor Statistics," by Prof. Richmond M. Smith; and "The Conference at Berlin on the West-African Question," by Daniel De Leon. This enterprise seems to us full of promise, and to be a notable evidence of the growth of serious political thought and study in this country.

Henry Holt & Co. will soon add to their "Library of Foreign Poetry" a new translation of Goethe's songs, ballads, and selected miscellaneous poems, by Commander William Gibson, U. S. N.

A memorial of the late George Fuller, by many hands, in prose and in verse, with choice illustrations from this artist's works (a complete list of which and of their present owners will be given), is promised shortly in a limited edition of 300 copies by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A new volume of verse by Whittier, containing the poems he has written since the publication of "The Bay of Seven Islands" in 1883, is to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A new monthly magazine, the *Forum*, is to be launched directly in this city. It will in form be modelled after the English reviews. Its field is but vaguely described in the circular before us.

Mr. John Morley's 'Rousseau,' in two volumes, follows 'Voltaire' in the new and irresistibly attractive uniform edition of Messrs. Macmillan. The two works belong together by every relation of their subjects, whether between themselves or in the author's mind; and if the purchaser of this edition stopped anywhere, he could not well take one without the other. Both are masterpieces of condensation and generalization.

Last week we had 'Whitaker's Almanack,' and now Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac' (American News Co.) comes to hand—the ninth issue, if our reckoning is not at fault. Want of public appreciation of this useful work accounts, we suppose, for the neglect into which the stereotyped portion has fallen, even to downright illegibility in some cases. The publishers should look to this, especially since they have always been too careless of the typographical appearance of their annual. In this respect Spofford cannot compare with Whitaker.

We give a ready welcome to Part i. of Vol. v. of 'The Encyclopædic Dictionary' (Cassell & Co.)—none the less a volume because called a "Part," and properly Vol. ix.—with its vocabulary extending from *mem.* to *parbuckle*. The fulness of this vocabulary is the great recommendation of the work, as we have more than once remarked. But there are numerous other aspects in which the Dictionary must be regarded with favor. Its encyclopædic character is well exhibited in definitions like those of Mennonite, mesmerism, meteor, monitor, moon, Mormonism, morphology, Muhammadan architecture, Navigation Laws, negro, nihilism, non-juror, Old Catholics, parabola, etc.

Prof. H. Sweet regrets, in a letter to the *Academy*, that the New English Dictionary was not established on a more modest but more convenient and businesslike scale than the present magnificent one. This is not pleasant language to hear from an Englishman concerning a work which is to be his country's greatest philological glory, and the best dictionary in any language. From another source one might ascribe it to the narrowness and jealousy of a university town, but such words are not to be used of Professor Sweet. Shall we apply to him the saying that an Englishman is never so happy as when he is grumbling?

The twelfth volume of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) is completed with Parts 178–180, which end with *Phoxos*. There is a beautiful map of Paris and vicinity, and two of Austria-Hungary—one ethnographical, the other physical; as well as one of Palestine. Excellent color printing is displayed in the plate showing the diseases of plants.

The lesser Brockhaus has long passed the halfway mark with Part 42, ending with *Maurogeni*. *Colonies* and *Congo* are allowed a measure of space in decided contrast with the general brevity of the articles in this handy reference book; and the most striking of three maps is one showing the outlying possessions of the European States. There is also a colored plate of edible mushrooms, besides the customary woodcuts. The death of General McClellan, whose name occurs in this instalment, has not been overlooked.

The eleventh edition of Berghaus's Chart of the World (Gotha: J. Perthes; New York: Westermann), in which, by the way, the nomenclature is English, has been revised as usual, and is the freshest compendium of information for the merchant, the tourist, or the navigator. The German colonial fever has helped to swell the number of steamship routes laid down; railroads and submarine cables have multiplied; the Congo Free State and the Russian advance in Central Asia have developed new lines of transportation and communication. The principal changes noted in the physical facts of the earth's surface naturally relate to the north polar ice-belt, whose positions at a great many epochs in the present century are carefully delineated. Indeed, the Chart is a convenient register of Arctic exploration.

The appearance of Mr. Harrisse's 'Christophe Colomb' and of C. F. Duro's 'Colón y Pinzón' has prompted Prof. Eugene Gelcich to gather up his notes, made during many years, for a defence of Columbus against his detractors as a navigator (*als Nautiker und als Seemann*). His learned and elaborate paper is printed in the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society, No. 118.

The seventh annual report of the Geographical Society of Bern, of which the text is (as happens) French or German, has a largely American complexion. It opens, appropriately enough, with a tribute to Arnold Guyot, the editor's countryman, and there are also papers on the city of Mexico and its suburbs; on the civil war in Central America, which ended in the death of Barrios; on the Argentine Republic, and especially the Province of Tucuman. One of the two maps is given to Guatemala; the other illustrates an article called "Life on the Congo," a rosy view.

Science for February 12 reproduces the map of Burmah, Siam, and the Shan States published in the Royal Geographical Society's Proceedings for January. Its details will be a great comfort to editors and students who have to follow the progress of the English occupation of the first-named country.

The interest excited in Mr. Samuel Brearley's report to the Harvard Club, in criticism of the elective system at Harvard, has caused it to be

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put on sale with G. P. Putnam's Sons, 27 West Twenty-third Street, New York.

The Boston *Journal of Education* for February 18 is wholly a memorial number in honor of the late John D. Philbrick, formerly superintendent of the Boston schools, and for forty years prominent in educational circles. But the *Journal* ought to have suppressed the wretched portrait which disfigures its first page.

Under the rather questionable title, 'A Forgotten Genius: Charles Whitehead,' Mr. Mackenzie Bell has lately published (London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribner & Welford) a biography of an erratic, gifted, and miserable Englishman, who held a fair position in English journalism half a century ago, acting as assistant to Dickens, writing poems and novels, some of which succeeded, and all of which had qualities that demanded critical consideration, and who took to drink and at last died wretchedly, alone among strangers, in a hospital in Australia. Mr. Mackenzie Bell examines all of Whitehead's works in prose and verse at great length, and makes abundant extracts therefrom; but it can hardly be admitted that the evidence he adduces proves the right of his hero to remembrance. He even ventures on a comparison with the case of Edgar Allen Poe, just now a more fashionable type of genius and weakness than either Richard Savage or François Villon; but Mr. Mackenzie Bell ignores the great difference between Poe and Whitehead. Nevertheless, his book is interesting and careful; and it contains a curious anecdote of Rossetti's remembering a sonnet of Whitehead's, and transmuting its base metal into his own fine gold.

During the last year the *Revue Bleue* has published many interesting letters received by the late Adolphe Crémieux, and these with others are now issued in a little volume, 'Autographes: Collection Adolphe Crémieux' (Paris: Hetzel; New York: F. W. Christern). Crémieux was the chosen lawyer of many of the leading lights of literature and art, a man of high character and great ability. His wife was a charming woman and a fine musician. In his collection are characteristic letters from Hugo and Dumas, Liszt, Rossini, Halévy, and Auber, from Talma and Rachel, connected by a slight thread of explanatory text. Of Talma there is (p. 15) a pertinent anecdote showing that he, like M. Coquelin in our day, is of Diderot's opinion that an actor should not allow himself to be mastered by the emotion he depicts; and (p. 93) there is an anecdote quite to the same effect. The main interest of the collection, however, is in the letters and anecdotes of Rachel, which fill more than a hundred pages. As a member of the same race and faith, Rachel came early for advice to M. Crémieux. She was profoundly ignorant, having read, even in the plays she acted, only her own part and its "cues." She could not spell at all; she writes from London that "M. Stanoppe est un homme fort comiffaut" (p. 211). Crémieux wrote her letters for her to copy for several years until she erred from the straight and narrow path. The letters she wrote to him, asking him to draft notes and replies for her, will hereafter hold a high place among the curiosities of literature.

Westermann & Co. send us Parts 3-5 of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst' now publishing by Grote in Berlin. They continue to treat of architecture and the subsidiary arts, and are embellished with fine wood engravings of churches and statuary, and with some admirable chromo illustrations.

Even for the origin of the movement cure we must go to China, and perhaps the latest work on the subject is that by P'an Wei, the present Governor of Hupeh, a brochure entitled 'Important Life-maintaining Methods.' He treats of massage and air-gulping, and furnishes material for a very amusing as well as learned article by Doctor Macgowan in No. 29 of the *Medical Reporter*. Twelve figures of calisthenic exercises without instruments are copied from the original.

Of late much has been made of photography in its application to astronomy, but not too much. The researches of the late Doctor Henry Draper in connection with the great nebula of Orion were about the first to show how powerful an adjunct to the tools of the astronomer photography had become. It was made plain that the sensitive dry plates were much more sensitive than the eye—in other words, that many things that could not be seen with a given optical means were easy to photograph with an equivalent apparatus. This line of research has been successfully followed up in England by Huggins, Common, and others, and in France by Paul and Prosper Henry, who now give notice, through the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, of the discovery of a nebula by photography. As yet it cannot be verified by the telescope.

An ideally fine portrait of the late General Hancock, half life-size (or "imperial panel photograph," as the technical designation is) comes to us from Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, who has taken extraordinary pains, with extraordinary success, to form a national portrait gallery of "men of the time."

—*Harper's* for March is predominantly geographical, for when the reader has exhausted the laborious article on Krupp and his guns, he has small choice left except to con the new map of Africa, as thickly studded with names as the plan of a mushroom Western town with corner-lots, or else to wander over the very dismal scenes of Turkoman raids and view the tombs of Cain and Abel with an *attaché* of the Afghan Boundary Commission, or to hear again the charms of rural Breton life, or to watch the change of the log-hut acres by the marshy river into the wealth and beauty of the splendid avenues and the smoke of the great industries of the city of Cleveland. This last is an admirable paper, with its vivid touch of early history and sketch of the genuine pioneer character, and its gradual unfolding of a subject hard to bring into the narrow limits; no one of the series to which it belongs has been more instructive in the essentials of the growth and worth of an American city. An article on dogs, by Hugh Dalziel, contains an amount of information, in regard to their management and care, difficult to obtain in so compact a form and of a very practical kind; and considering the unrivalled ignorance of man respecting the treatment of his best animal friends, who "have no rights," an eminent Christian official assures us, "because they have no souls," such an essay as this deserves to be "crowned" by some humanitarian society. The Easy Chair almost surpasses himself in the delightfulness of temper and literary tact of his monologues, which alone in this number remind us that literature is a fine art.

—Not so, however, with the current *Atlantic*, which still flies the flag of belles-lettres, and will, we dare say, till the tattered ensign goes down with the ship or is safely stored away in some museum library. There is nothing in the issue which has not in its kind the special quality of excellence which appeals to taste, apart from a mere curiosity or vacuity of mind to which the day's literature is mainly addressed. The first story, in which the character of the tale-teller is delightfully self-revealed, pleases by its mere daring and freshness, being as unreal as Jack's bean-stalk in a field of mere ordinary realistic beans, and therefore a heavenly relief to the eye; and our correspondents on the vexed question of "the real and the ideal," after cogitating this piece of indescribable fiction, may find some interest in Dr. Hedge's discussion of "the classic and the romantic," which is just over the way from them. To compress the article into an epigram, one would say that the classic is the thing seen and the romantic the thing felt. But let no one rashly identify the thing seen with the real, and infer heaven knows what—and so be lured off into a dance of phrases; for if he be wise he will remember it is always assumed that the classic, the thing seen, is a sort of Hesperian presence of the ideal; and here we pause with the first thread of the labyrinth. Dr. Holmes writes a defence of occasional verses, and gives two illustrations from his recent experience, of which the poem to Dr. Hedge rises above the level. Mr. Van Brunt speaks of the state of architecture, and Mr. Justin Winsor of libraries of Americana, an article which probably could not have found publication except in the *Atlantic;* and it is pleasant to observe, in this most literary of the monthlies, the welcome judgment that Grant's Memoirs is turning out to be one of the memorable books of the world.

—The latest addition to the Johns Hopkins University Studies is a pamphlet of some sixty pages called 'Dutch Village Communities on the Hudson River,' by Irving Elting, A.B., which makes the first number of the fourth series. It is a pleasantly written account of some of the facts connecting village life and common ownership in New York with the primitive customs of the race. The author writes with great knowledge of his subject, having evidently made an examination of the local records at first hand. The brochure can hardly be said to shed any new light on the questions at issue among the European investigators of village community life; indeed, Mr. Elting is unwilling to go so far as to commit himself to a decided expression of opinion that common property preceded individual ownership, and says: "A decision of this question, if it were possible, is not necessary for the present purpose of examining the village communities on the Hudson River." Notwithstanding this extreme caution, he concludes his essay with the following rather broad generalization: "From the banks of the Rhine the germs of free local institutions, borne on the tide of Western emigration, found here, along the Hudson, a more fruitful soil than New England afforded for the growth of those forms of municipal, State, and national government which have made the United States the leading republic among the nations. Thus, in a new and historically important sense, may the Hudson River be called the 'Rhine of America.'" We do not see how the evidence that Mr. Elting has collected tends to establish this. In New York and in the Southern States, we had always supposed that manorial rights played a more important part in the early system of landholding; while in New England it was precisely because the political unit—the town—was also a representative of tolerably equal landownership, reinforced by the commons system, that Massachusetts became the Cradle of Liberty. Of course the scientific mind must always be open to new hypotheses, and we are quite ready to have it proved that it was the primitive Hudson River, or even Long Island Dutchman, and not the "embattled farmer" of New England, who did most for "those forms of municipal, State, and national government which have made the United States the leading republic among the nations." But it ought to be clearly proved. "What is now City Hall Park in New York," says Mr. Elting, "was as late as 1686, *perhaps much later*, known as the Village Commons, where the droves of cattle were sent morning and evening to pasture." But, on the other hand, Boston Common is still

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called Boston Common after a lapse of two centuries, and the survival or disappearance of the name is pretty much all we have in either case to indicate the permanence or impermanence of the institution in the affections of the people.

— Sir Henry Thompson's 'Food and Feeding' (F. Warne & Co.) has appeared in a fourth, enlarged edition; and we should be pleased if, some day, we might announce its fortieth edition, for it is perhaps the most useful, suggestive, and at the same time entertaining work on gastronomy in the English language, if not in any language. Brillat-Savarin's famous 'Physiologie du Goût' is more epigrammatic, spicy, and fanciful, but far less valuable from a practical point of view, not to speak of its numerous errors. Sir Henry's treatise is by no means, as its title would seem to imply, a dry, chemico-physiological compilation or book of recipes. It discusses such topics as schools of cookery, public dinners, toasts, *menus;* the question of wine, tobacco, mineral waters, and coffee at dinner; turtle and fish dinners; breakfast and lunch; salads, sauces, soups, stewing, frying, etc., etc. The average man, even among the educated, "cares more for quantity than quality, desires little variety, and regards as impertinent an innovation in the shape of a new aliment, expecting the same food at the same hour daily, his enjoyment of which apparently greatly depends on his ability to swallow the portion with extreme rapidity, that he may apply himself to some other and more important occupation without delay." Sir Henry vigorously combats this vicious propensity; emphasizing everywhere the extreme importance to health and happiness of good cookery, and stating the reasons why one method is superior to another.

— In giving, for instance, a receipt for wholemeal bread (p. 41) he points out as one of its advantages that it is more stimulating to the appetite than ordinary bread because "it retains the natural flavor of the wheat in place of the insipidity which is characteristic of fine flour." In the cooking of meat it is precisely this effort to "retain the natural flavor" that distinguishes English from French cookery. In English cookery the motto is, "Each animal, when served, to be characterized by its own proper flavor, which is on no account to be masked or disguised by others which are adventitious. . . . The French *chef* treats the white meat, veal and domestic poultry, with so many ingeniously contrived sauces as to render these two meats as good as six. So successful is the achievement that he is too often tempted to extend his art to dark-fleshed game, and, seeking to adorn it with new flavors, destroys the original savor and aroma in which consists the value of the dish." It is in vegetable dishes and soups that French cookery is superior to English. Even more than meat a French cook is apt to spoil fish with his sauces. Sir Henry combats the old superstition that fish contains certain elements which adapt it preëminently to renovate the brain; but in another sense, as he shows, fish is the best food for brain-workers, for it is more easily digested than meat, and demands less physical exercise for its assimilation. In another chapter he remarks that "Milk is essentially the food of the growing animal. . . . Those who take much exercise, or follow laborious occupations, may make it a useful portion of their dietary. It is rarely suitable for sedentary persons." The vegetarian controversy is very sensibly settled by the remark that "man is clearly omnivorous; while *men* may be advantageously vegetarians in one climate, mixed eaters in another, and exclusively flesh-eaters in a third." Against one phase of vegetarianism Sir Henry protests vigorously, namely, the use of dried and compressed vegetables which is getting so common in hotels and elsewhere, to save trouble: "All the finest qualities of scent and flavor, with some of the fresh juices, are lost in the drying process; and the infusions of preserved vegetables no more resemble a freshly made odoriferous soup than a cup of that thick, brown, odorless, insipid mixture, consisting of some bottled 'essence' dissolved in hot water, and now supplied as coffee at most railway stations and hotels in England, resembles the recently made infusion of the freshly roasted berry."

— The future essayist who first writes about the "curiosities of catalogues" will not suffer from lack of amusing material. In a recent English catalogue of a second-hand bookseller there are two entries which may be called to his attention for the evidently unconscious humor of the compiler's recommendatory notes:

509 MATRIMONY.—How to be Happy though Married: being a Handbook to Marriage, impl. 16mo, *cloth elegant*, 5*s nett* 1885. The title is borrowed from one of Skelton's Sermons; a copy has been accepted by the Princess Beatrice.

682 SUNDRY BOOKS.—A parcel of 50 (religious) from the Library of the late Rev. H. T. Ellacombe, *suitable for distribution among poor parishioners*, 10*s* the lot, A BARGAIN *v. d.*

It would be interesting to get the opinion of H. R. H. the Princess Beatrice and of the poor parishioners.

— In connection with the recent new regulations, of which we have spoken, the Italian Government last month issued decrees, changing by promotion or otherwise the personnel of the principal libraries, and giving to the institutions themselves rank and appropriations according to their relative importance. The following librarians-in-chief receive the title of Prefect: Domenico Gnoli (as a chief living poet, better known by his pseudonym, Dario Gaddi), prefect of the Victor Emanuel Library, Rome; Desiderio Chilovi, *bibliothecist* pure and simple, Biblioteca Nazionale, Florence; Carlo Castellani, bibliographer, Librarian of St. Mark (Biblioteca Marciana), Venice; Isaia Ghiron, Hebraist, author of many works, historical, numismatic, biographical, the Brera Library, Milan; Niccola Anziani, palæographer, Laurentian Library, Florence; Gaspare Gorresio, a well-known Sanscrit scholar, University Library, Turin; Vito Fornari, a philosophical writer and critic, National Library, Naples. The title of Librarian is given to Olindo Guerrini, poet and critic, University Library, Bologna. These appointments are generally in the line of the new policy—to put at the head of the great book collections, and in the subordinate positions as well, not merely learned men, but *librarians* in our American sense of the word. Heretofore in Europe, and particularly in Italy, these positions have been occupied, not by men of high technical bibliothecal attainments, feeling it their duty to make the libraries more and more accessible to the public, to prepare accurate and full catalogues, to publish bulletins, indexes, and the like, but by mere scholars, who have received their posts as a sort of recompense for their learning, and who have used the time which fairly ought to be given to library work in editing MSS. or preparing other works. The second, third, and fourth volumes of the series, *Indici e Cataloghi*, published by the Ministry of Public Instruction, are out. They are: 'Catalogo dei Manoscritti Foscoliani, già proprietà Martelli, della Biblioteca Nazionale di Firenze'—a catalogue of the Martelli collection of Ugo Foscolo MSS., of great interest, particularly the correspondence, in relation to the literary history of his times; 'Disegni di Architettura esistenti nella R. Galleria degli Uffizi di Firenze'—these architectural designs of the Regia Galleria being by the most famous architects; and of great importance will this catalogue be to students of architecture and architectural history; and 'I Codici Palatini della R. Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale di Firenze'—the portion, namely, already catalogued, but somewhat imperfectly, in Palermo's work on these MSS.

GRANT'S MEMOIRS.

Personal Memoirs of U. S. Grant. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1885. Vol. i, pp. 584, 8vo.

Nearly everybody, we take it, heard of General Grant's purpose to write his military memoirs with grave doubts of its effect upon his fame. From the beginning he made known, with characteristic openness, that the ruin of his business affairs made the *Century* Company's offer to pay a large price for some magazine articles a welcome one to him. He has repeated this fact in the preface to the present volume, only adding that what began as an apparent necessity, continued as a pleasing occupation when once it was begun. His countrymen, who were jealous of his fame as of a national possession, feared that a book written under such circumstances, by a man who had shown no desire or taste for literary work, could not prove satisfactory. They distrusted, also, the business management under which the memoirs would appear; for however high the character of publishers, there was danger that a great name might be used to secure great sales without due consideration of the effect upon that name and fame.

The result has happily disappointed these fears. Beginning with a disposition to compress his narrative into the barest outline of events, General Grant learned from the suggestions of friendly critics (as General Badeau has told us) to enlarge the scope of his first sketches, and impart much more vivacity and incident to them. The light of publicity in which he lived has given us, in a degree hardly ever known before in the case of a book likely to have permanent value, the steps in his literary education by which he was led from what might have been the bald reproduction of a military report, to the conception and execution of a memoir which no one can find dull, and which those readers who take pleasure in the analysis of a great man's mind and character will regard of inestimable price. Nine-tenths of the value of autobiography is in the revelation of the writer himself to the world. This book is no exception to the rule. The history of his campaigns may be got elsewhere. Badeau's book is more full and has scarcely less of Grant's authority, for he revised its statements and certified that it contained his views. In all essential things the present work may be said to be an abridgment and paraphrase of the other. As originally prepared, it was in itself the most absolute evidence of the authoritative character of Badeau's history; and the changes which were made after the publication of portions as magazine articles are evidence that the author would have had to modify others of his recollections or conclusions, if the whole could have been subjected to criticism in the same way.

It is, then, for the new light which they throw upon Grant himself that these memoirs will be prized. His personality was too strong to be hidden. When he took his pen to tell the story of his career, the things which flowed most easily from his mind were the judgments and opinions of men and of events in the gross, and not the detailed incidents which the experienced writer would use to fill and color his narrative. We learn what was the Grant method of viewing things, and are greatly helped in forming truthful ideas of his powers and his peculiarities. As to his style, it has the principal element of thoroughly good writing, since we are made to feel

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that the writer's only thought, in this regard, is how to express most directly and simply the thing he has to say. His ideas are always clear, his arrangement of them is always lucid, the expression of them is free from mannerism or strain after effect; and therefore, as writing, the result cannot fail to be satisfactory.

The first volume, beginning with Grant's boyhood and service in the regular army, brings his career down to the close of the Vicksburg campaign. By whatever considerations he was induced to make his sketch of the Mexican war fill so large a space in the narrative, it was a fortunate thing that he has done so. More than a hundred and fifty pages are devoted to this subject, and we doubt if there can anywhere be found so intelligible and useful a brief account of the military operations in Mexico. He goes back to the experiences of his youth with the broad judgment matured in the great campaigns of the civil war. His estimate of Scott and Taylor is an unprejudiced retrospect of men who had been his youthful admiration, and his kindly but discriminating judgment of their campaigns may well become a standard authority upon that period of our history. If one were disposed to question his capacity as a writer, this portion of his book would decisively settle the question. That this is original work, no one can gainsay. His materials, except his personal reminiscences of the time, are only such as any writer may command; but the vigor of the narrative, the strong grouping of salient points, the sagacious criticisms, the quick eye for the telling features of a battle or a movement, are all noteworthy, and show that his powers were of no ordinary kind.

When he comes to tell the events of the civil war we look, first of all, for evidence of the growth of his knowledge of his own powers, for it would be absurd to suppose that a man with a career behind him which must be accounted in most things a failure, could have had any very clear consciousness of his own abilities. He does not inform us of his real hopes or expectations at the outbreak of the war. He helped organize the first company raised in Galena, and never went back to the little leather shop to do any business again. Yet he refused the captaincy of that company, while intimating to his friends that he would find a place in the military service somewhere. He showed his zeal by drilling the company, and accompanied it to Springfield, where he was invited by Governor Yates to serve for a time as assistant to the Adjutant-General of the State in organizing the Illinois contingent under the first enlistment. It seems probable that he looked for some public call upon West Point men who were out of the army to return to the regular service, and was disappointed that the Government did nothing of this kind. On the 10th of May, while waiting near St. Louis to muster in some Illinois regiments, he witnessed the initiative taken by Captain Lyon, and the capture of the camp of the Confederate "Home-Guards" near that city. On the 24th he addressed a letter to the War Department, tendering his services and indicating the command of a regiment as the post for which he felt competent. It was probably one of the new regiments authorized for the regular army which he had in mind, for the national Government appointed the officers of no others, and we may thus infer that his hope was for a reinstatement in the regular service. He doubted his ability to perform properly the duties of a colonel, but thought he could at least do as well as the volunteer colonels whom he had mustered into the service of the Government. No answer, however, came to his offer of service, and he failed also in an effort to see McClellan for the purpose of renewing the offer in person; McClellan being now at the head of the Department of the Ohio and a Major-General in the regular army.

Grant seems now to have given up the hope of reëntering the regular service, and upon the issue of the call by President Lincoln for three hundred thousand men, he was appointed by Governor Yates Colonel of the 21st Illinois regiment. Had he been willing to accept the captaincy of the Galena company, he would probably have been made Colonel of the 11th into which it was mustered; but he had wished first to test the possibility of resuming his profession permanently, and, having failed in this, he threw himself heartily into the volunteer service, in which he was to make his fame. His staff service with the Governor made him some valuable friends, and no doubt led to his early appointment as Brigadier-General before he had taken the field. He had no taste for the semi-clerical duties of the Adjutant-General's office, saying of himself, humorously, "The only place I ever found in my life to put a paper so as to find it again, was either a side coat-pocket or the hands of a clerk or secretary more careful than myself." We may be sure, however, that the public men who had come in contact with him had seen the thoroughly earnest but simple business air of the man, and had learned to have faith in his quiet, impassive character.

His first field service was in beating up the quarters of a Confederate Colonel Harris, a little way back from the Mississippi River in Missouri. He describes the weight of responsibility he felt, and the nervous uneasiness with which he approached what promised to be a field of battle. He would have felt none of this, he says, if he had been a subordinate. It was the responsibility for the handling of men, and for the results, that brought his heart into his throat. But the enemy had run at the news of his approach: "My heart resumed its place. It occurred to me at once that Harris had been as much afraid of me as I had been of him. *This was a view of the question I had never taken before; but it was one I never forgot afterward.*" The words we have italicised are a characteristic revelation of the effect of this lesson of experience upon his mind. Many military officers, even generals of high repute, never learned that lesson, which contains the secret of every vigorous campaign. To take the unknown for the wonderful is proverbially common. It is the reason why men will tremble at a burglar's noise in the house at night, who would face an army of tramps if they could see them. It is what makes army commanders believe exaggerated reports of their enemy's strength, and conduct feeble operations against a weaker foe. Grant was not alone in seeing that his enemy had been in more fear than he, but he was singular in remembering it always after; that is, in gaining permanent confidence and courage to take a bold initiative, with steady and clear appreciation of the moral superiority it gave him over any opponent but one whose nerve and judgment were as good as his own. This is the commander's courage, a thing *toto cœlo* different from that of the subordinate or of the soldier in the ranks. These throw the responsibility for the unknown upon their chief; they use only the common courage of facing bravely what they see. The mode in which Grant has put this is as characteristic as the thing itself. He does not generalize upon it or attempt to analyze it. It is simply a concrete fact; he saw that his enemy was afraid of him, and intuitively concluded that he should find it so in other cases.

Another interesting revelation of his mental operations is found in his final attack at Fort Donelson. The naval attack had been beaten off, and he had seen the fleet retire discomfited. His army had found strong entrenchments in front, and had made no impression on them. He visited Commodore Foote, and learned that the gunboats must go down the river for repairs. He began to think a siege might be necessary. General Wallace says it had been actually determined on. In his absence the enemy took the initiative, and was only beaten back by the conjoined efforts of McClernand and Wallace, after the first had been worsted. Coming on the field, he is told that the enemy had come out laden with ammunition and with three days' rations. What others thought an indication of confidence and preparation for a long fight he instantly saw to mean an effort to cut their way out and to escape. His mind jumped to the conclusion that it also implied that the enemy must have concentrated his forces to do this, and that if he could strike quickly at the other end of the line, he would capture their works with little resistance. This made him content to let Wallace keep up a mere show of attack, while he hurried to General Smith with the order to assault headlong on our left. The success was the legitimate result of quick, almost intuitive perception of the true meaning of little facts, and the promptest and strongest action upon his interpretation of them. He was sure they meant—it is better to say he *saw* they meant—but one thing; and his will followed the perception with scarce interval enough to call it reasoning. That is Grant's part in the battle at Fort Donelson, and we must admit that it is the master's part. The march from Fort Henry was an audacity learned in his first march against Colonel Harris, but it was within an ace of failure, when the new and unexpected circumstance of the enemy's sortie gave a momentary opportunity which was instantly seized so as to lead to victory. We may be sure he forgot the second lesson as little as the first. The one was boldness and initiative in the strategy, the other was the quick tactical concentration of attack upon the weak spot which was disclosed in the battle. Add to these, tireless patience in biding his time when it was necessary, and indomitable perseverance in hammering away when nothing better can be done, and we have the principal elements of Grant's military character, which satisfactorily account for his career.

Yet he had lessons still to learn, and his campaign of Shiloh taught him by a severe experience the danger of over-confidence and of having his headquarters too far from the front. It need hardly be said that so apt a pupil learned the lesson well, though the soreness with which he ever remembered it prevented his speaking of it with the freedom with which he referred to his other advantages gained in the school of experience. The official records now make it too plain for fair dispute that neither Halleck, Buell, nor Grant believed the Confederates could rally for a strong counter attack so soon after the fall of Fort Donelson as the 6th of April. Halleck intended to take the field in person when Buell's army should join Grant; Buell moved southwestward from Columbia, Tennessee, steadily but without any haste; and Grant had his headquarters at Savannah, nine miles below Pittsburg Landing, on the opposite side of the river. He did not take the pains to arrange a meeting with Buell on the 5th, the day of his arrival at the same place; he arranged a private friendly visit with General Ammen, an old neighbor who was in Buell's command, for the evening of the 7th at his Savannah headquarters. He informed both Halleck and Buell on the 5th that the enemy's army was at Corinth, and Halleck wrote that he expected to leave St. Louis early in the week beginning with Sunday, the 6th, to meet his assembled army at the front by the time the concentration of Buell and Grant was accomplished. Then the enemy at Corinth was to be attacked, and Grant had expressed the opinion that that place would

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"fall much more easily than Donelson did when we do move." Grant's divisions at Shiloh were encamped with reference to convenience of access and eligibility of camp-grounds, and with no expectation of fighting a defensive battle on that field. General McClernand had disputed the seniority of C. F. Smith, who had been in command at Pittsburg Landing till an accidental injury of which he died had made him relinquish his post. No assignment of another was made by Grant, who expected to be with them in a few days, and the division commanders were independent of each other unless an exigency should arise in Grant's absence for united action, when McClernand would have been entitled to command by seniority, under the articles of war and military regulations.

This was the situation when, on the morning of the 6th, about 8 o'clock, the roar of cannon was heard at Savannah, announcing the enemy's attack in force at Shiloh. That Grant then made haste to reach the field, and that when there he did all that his unflinching courage and clear military understanding could do to give unity and plan to the stubborn defensive fighting of his divisions, we could infer certainly from what is now known of his character, if the earlier misstatements in regard to it had not been already corrected by official evidence. It is settled by the testimony of Confederate as well as national officers that the weight and impetus of the Confederate attack had exhausted itself before Buell's command or any part of it had crossed the river, and that Beauregard had issued his orders withdrawing his troops from their advanced positions. Grant had also notified Sherman that he should resume the offensive in the morning. Knowing Grant as we now know him, this is what he was every way most likely to do. At the time, when he was not well known, it was hard to believe that he could have retained the unconquerable will to do this after a long day's battle in which his troops had been driven back mile after mile. On the 7th, with the efficient aid of Buell's splendid command, a decisive victory was won. But we cannot dwell upon this: our present purpose is only to follow the course of Grant's development or education—it matters little which we call it. He was never again found in a position where he was unprepared for a return blow of the enemy, nor were his headquarters ever again separated from the troops of the line during an active campaign.

His Vicksburg campaign also began with errors and untoward events, though they were due to different causes from those which had operated at Shiloh. His sudden abandonment of the line of movement through central Mississippi for that of the river cannot be defended on military grounds. Sherman was clearly right in his criticism of it at the time and in his memoirs. The truth seems to be that Grant was so alarmed at the probable results of a permanent division of his forces by the assignment of McClernand to command the river expedition, that the reunion of all was determined on at the cost of abandoning his true line of operations, which he had to regain by almost desperate means after months spent in fruitless toil in the bayous and upon the swampy banks of the Mississippi. When the situation had become desperate, he rose to the height of the demand upon his brain and courage, and broke out of his embarrassments by a gigantic effort which placed him again upon the high lands east of the river without a formal retracing of his steps. It would seem that the real question in his mind was whether his rôle should be a principal or a secondary one, and his transfer of his army from Oxford, Miss., to the levees at Millikin's Bend was the solution of a personal more than a military problem. When he had extricated himself, however, and from the moment he had gained a firm footing at Port Gibson, the campaign till Pemberton was shut up in Vicksburg is rightly regarded as the flower of his military career, the most perfect combination of bold strategic movement with successful field fighting which it was ever his fortune to make. It was this, when they had reached Haines's Bluff, that aroused Sherman's enthusiasm, and drew from him the memorable words in which he recognized the military genius and power of his commanding officer.

Grant's method of treating his mistakes differs with the situation. No one can be more frank or direct in self-criticism in minor matters, as when he says of himself that he lacked the moral courage to stop and consider when he was making his first little expedition against Colonel Harris. But in regard to things which became subjects of controversy, he was not free from the altogether human desire to defend the course he actually pursued. In regard to the days immediately preceding Shiloh, and in reference to the movement of Wallace's division to the field, his memory is not quite accurate as tested by the official records, which it is plain he did not have the time or opportunity to reëxamine with care, writing as he did in the confinement of the sick-room. We learn to know more of the man himself from his narrative, as we have said already, but we must still go to the great storehouse of the official records for the full correction of the history of the time; and had he lived to see his memoirs published, there can be no doubt that he would have recast some important passages. So, also, in regard to the Vicksburg campaign, he gives as a sufficient reason for his change of base, "the impossibility of maintaining so long a line of road over which to draw supplies for an army moving in the enemy's country." As an argument, this loses its force when we remember how much longer lines were protected by Sherman at Atlanta, and how little he himself regarded the cutting of Rosecrans's communications a reason for abandoning the campaign of Chattanooga. In such cases the personal reasons which influence a man's decision do not always become distinctly conscious to him, or, at most, he will regard them only as adding weight to the other grounds upon which he prefers to base his action. That his likes and dislikes of men powerfully affected his conduct, is too well known to be matter of discussion in Grant's case. In civil administration it became a misfortune of no ordinary dimensions; and while less need of considering this is felt in reading his military memoirs, it will by no means do to ignore it. Yet when all deductions are made, the volume already published is so valuable an aid to the comprehension of General Grant and his times that it cannot fail to have a permanent place in literature, and the continuation of the work will be looked for with genuine interest. #

Marvels of Animal Life. By Charles Frederick Holder. Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. 240. Illustrated.

THOSE who delight in stories of the wonderful in nature will find this book attractive. It is one of a number, bearing considerable resemblance in good qualities and in faults, recently published by different writers on popular natural history. The principal difference appears in the larger number of topics drawn from marine life. It is very entertaining, and contains a large amount of valuable information. The descriptions are full of life and the interest seldom flags. If the objectionable features had been left out, we should have in it such a book as is most desired for unscientific readers, who wish to gather facts, but make no attempt to be systematic in doing so. In the interest of these readers we shall direct special attention to the characteristics to which we take most exception. A desire to make the most of the stories told has induced some exaggeration and recklessness in statement. In gathering the marvels, some are introduced which should have been described as conjectures; yet, though the author adds nothing to the evidence and had no means of verifying, he does not hesitate to commit himself in favor of what he prefers to believe, even if in doing so he throws shadows of uncertainty upon matter of real value. Questionable information given as such may result in good, from the reader's desire to satisfy himself of the truth; but given as fact, sanctioned by the author, it either misleads or causes suspicion of his judgment.

A few instances, or a single chapter on the best known of the subjects, will serve for illustrations. "The most remarkable statement concerning these fishes made by this author [Schomburgk] is that the Hassar, which is the native name for *Callichthys subulatus*, constructs a regular nest of blades of grass and leaves in holes *just above* the water, where it deposits its eggs, and watches them until the young appear." Schomburgk's words are, "etwas *unter* der Oberfläche des Wassers," and the name Hassar is applied to various species. "In Eastern seas we find the grass fish (*Nemichthys*), which is invariably seen upright among the grass it resembles." *Nemichthys*, however, is a deep-sea fish, found in depths of 500 to 2,500 fathoms, and certainly never yet seen in its native haunts by eye of man. *Toxotes* is said with unerring aim to bring down insects at a distance of three or four feet. A chapter is devoted to "Dry Land Fishes," whatever they may be. On plate x. is figured a nondescript "Martinique tree-toad with young clinging to its back." The toad, as the author calls it, breathes by lungs, has pads on the ends of its toes, for clinging to rocks, trees, leaves, etc., and has no swimming membranes; the tadpoles apparently have not lost their gills, have the membranes on the tail, which could not last long out of water, and, clinging to the back by their mouths, are unable to feed. What is it he has given us?

Passing such mistakes as Ceradotus for Ceratodus, Edoux and Toulezet for Eydoux and Souleyet, Acrohordus for Acrochordus, Rhamphorhynchus for Rhacophorus, etc., let us take up one of the weakest chapters, "Our Common Snakes." They are "covered with a coat of scales [?] which is shed in the summer months [?]." Their teeth "are merely for two purposes: first to poison and stupefy the prey [in all cases ?]; and second to prevent its escape." The venom is said to be "accumulated in sacs that are modifications of the salivary gland." "To use the poison the snake has merely to strike its prey, the muscles of the jaw being so arranged that, as soon as the fang enters the flesh of the victim, certain muscles press upon the glands, squeeze the poison through the little canal down through the hollow fang, and the work is done." Use of venom depends on the will of the snake, whether the fang enters the flesh or not. "The poisonous snakes may always be recognized by their broad flattened heads and generally short and thick bodies. They also, as a rule, possess a vertical keel running along the centre of each scale." This would prevent the admission among poisonous snakes of many of the Hydrophidæ and the entire family of Elapsidæ. "The non-poisonous snakes have long bodies, with the head small, no distinct neck, and the scales not keeled." This would shut out our most common species, the garter or striped snakes and the water snakes. That rattlesnakes only strike when coiled is not strictly accurate. "Paralyzed by fear, the victim is often incapable of flight and stupidly awaits its fate. This, I think, will explain all the so-

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called cases of fascination." A better explanation of numerous cases is to be seen in the actions of snake and prey after the latter is stricken and the snake is watching its dying throes and waiting its fall. The author decides that snakes swallow their young for protection, and, without observations of his own, brings forward a lot of testimony most of which is hardly as positive as that cited for the snake that milks cows or the phantom ship, neither of which he chooses to believe. Many will see no compliment to the intelligence of his readers in the proof presented. Beauvois's story of the "five little serpents, each about the size of a goose-quill," is repeated. Plate xix. shows a large rattlesnake down the throat of which half-a-dozen young ones are scrambling. The young are not as long as the head of the mother; author and artist would be astonished to see how much larger at birth the young really are. Chateaubriand's fanciful story is once more placed before us. The copperhead is said to be the most dreaded, but, a few lines below, the water-moccasin "is perhaps equally to be feared." Of the moccasins Mr. Holder says, "They rarely attain a length of over twenty inches, and are short in proportion."

"A gentleman in Georgetown, S. C., writes: 'I had for several days noticed a very large moccasin coiled around the limb of a small tree near the pond. I concluded to capture it, and accordingly procured a large rabbit and placed it some way up from the pond, to toll her away from the water. She soon came down and disappeared under a large log; when next seen, she was near the bait, having traced it along the log on its opposite side. When she had nearly swallowed the bait, we made an advance; quickly disgorging it, she gave a shrill whistling noise, and five young snakes ran from under the log and ran down the throat of the old one. We cut off her head and found the five young, which made efforts to get away.'"

In the statement of a writer from Chesterfield, N. H., we find: "I saw a striped snake on the hillside, and noticed something moving about her head, and counted twenty little snakes from one and a half to two inches long. I made a move, and the old one opened her mouth, and they went in out of sight. I stepped back and waited, and in a few moments they began to come out. Then I made for the old snake, and killed her, and forced out several." "Another gentleman writes: 'Some years ago I came across a garter-snake with some young ones near her. Soon as she perceived me she hissed, and the young ones jumped down her throat, and she glided beneath a stone heap.'" "A party of hunters recently observed in Pennsylvania a black ball, two feet in diameter, rolling slowly down a hill, and found on examination that it was composed of hundreds of these reptiles [black snakes]." Mr. Holder says, also, that they are of a steel-blue uniform color, wild and untamable, "often engaging in encounters with other snakes, especially rattlesnakes, quickly killing and forcing them to disgorge their prey." In reality the color varies according to age from light bluish, spotted with brown, to glossy black; they are easily tamed, and swallow their prey alive. Professor Brackett's story tells that he found a lot of snakes' eggs, cut them open, liberating a number of young milk-adders, and that "soon the old snake appeared, and, after endeavoring apparently to encourage the young family thus suddenly initiated into the world, put its mouth down to the ground, and every one that had been liberated from the egg voluntarily and hastily disappeared within the abdomen of the old one." The black snake also is asserted to possess the peculiar habit of taking the young in its mouth. It is known to lay eggs and to be ophiophagous. An Ohio farmer, seeing a large water-snake in Deer Creek, "procured a pole for the purpose of killing her. One stroke slightly wounded her, and she immediately made for the water. After she had swum about her length, she wheeled, placing her under jaw just out of the edge of the water, and opened her mouth to the fullest extent. Some dozen young snakes, three to four inches long, then seemed to run, or rather swim, down her throat, after which she clumsily turned in search of a hiding place. He opened her, and found about twenty living young snakes, two or three seven or eight inches long. This shows them to have the same peculiar habit noticed in so many others." In a breath, some dozen three to four inches in length become about twenty, some of which are seven or eight inches long. The book would be incomplete without a chapter on the sea serpent.

A comical feature is the distribution of the pictures. In the chapter on "Meteors of the Sea" we find "American Gobies Crawling on the Shore"; in that on "Finny Light Bearers," "A Martinique Tree-Toad"; in "Old Friends," a "Sailor-Fish Wrecking a Canoe"; in "Our Common Snakes," a "Hermit Crab in a Tobacco Pipe," the "Pemaquid Sea Serpent," "Elasmosaurus," and "Camarasaurus"; in "Lost Races," a rattlesnake and an "Insect that Mimics a Twig"; in "The Tigers of the Sea," a caterpillar and a "Mammoth Adrift on an Icefield"; in "Living Lights," an "Extinct Sea Cow"; and in "The White Whalers," a "Gigantic Pyrosoma," a "Group of Flying Tree Toads," and an "Extinct Flying Reptile."

Moon-Lore. By the Rev. Timothy Harley, F.R.A.S. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1885.

THE author of this venture in "light literature," as he playfully terms it, has written an entertaining volume in a sprightly style. It is not an astronomical treatise, but confined in its scope to the knowledge man had of the moon before the days of telescopes and exact science. One might be surprised at the mass of this pre-scientific lore, had not comparative mythology and anthropology popularized much of its information. The man in the moon is, naturally, the leading character, and opens the play; then there is the woman in the moon, the hare and the dog and the rabbit, and all these in their life "play many parts," so that the moon seems well-inhabited. Many of these myths are interesting, and one—the story of Buddha's hare—is of the noblest order of religious parable. The remainder, and larger portion, of the volume is occupied with chapters on Moon-Worship, Moon-Superstition, and Moon-Inhabitation; and all these subjects are treated with fulness, intelligence, and a certain antiquarian charm in the composition which pleases the vacant hours. It seems to be a complete monograph on the subject, and in the division on superstition one will recognize many beliefs of his grandfathers and some still held.

It is interesting to note, further, that the author is a clergyman, and that, being thoroughly well-informed in the work of the modern comparative method which has made havoc of the supernaturalism of the religious sentiment, he loses no opportunity to assert the harmlessness of such knowledge and the desirability of it in common with all science. In not a few cases he diverges from the direct course of his narrative to deliver a five-minute sermon, and the effect is sometimes odd. Listen to this: "Whether we or our posterity will ever become better acquainted in this life with the man in the moon is problematical; but in the ages to come . . . he may be visible among the first who will declare, every man in his own tongue wherein he was born, the wonderful works of God. And he may be audible among the first who will lift their hallelujahs of undivided praise when every satellite shall be a chorister to laud the Universal King." The reader is then exhorted to learn "the music of eternity" by "high and holy living," in order that he may join in "the everlasting song," and so, "in one beatific moment," see more than hitherto "of the man in the moon." The entire seriousness of this is not the least attractive element in it; and we cannot refrain from quoting further from the last page of what is really an admirable work in its department, a sentence in which science and religion have reached a seemingly perfect fusion in the exaltation of "that Universal Father of Lights, with whom is no parallax nor descension." Too long contemplation of the moon is said to have uncanny effects, sometimes.

Victor Hugo. By Algernon Charles Swinburne. Worthington Co. 1886.

THE time for writing calmly of Victor Hugo has not yet come. Mr. Swinburne's rhapsody proves this. The book is merely a reprint of the articles published by him in the *Fortnightly Review* immediately after the death of the poet, together with that which appeared in 1883 when the final part of 'La Légende des Siècles' was published. It seems as if a short preface ought to have indicated this, which would have explained the haste apparent throughout. As a panegyric it has all the beauties of Mr. Swinburne's exuberant and enthusiastic style; it has none of the merits of a deliberate exposition of the great poet's work. It is an unmixed eulogy, spirited and genuinely sympathetic, but seldom discriminating, by a warm admirer, in many respects a disciple who has numerous points in common with *le maître*. The following passage, taken at random, may serve as a mild specimen of the writer's attitude:

"It will of course be understood that when I venture to select for special mention any special poem of Hugo's, I do not dream of venturing to suggest that others are not or may not be fully as worthy of homage, or that anything of this incomparable master's work will not requite our study or does not demand our admiration."

For Mr. Swinburne, Victor Hugo is a poet "not less than the best or lower than the greatest of all time," and the roll and the surge of his measured music are no less wonderful than those of Homer or Milton, or the English version of Job or Ezekiel or Isaiah.

Iconoclasm and Whitewash, and Other Papers. By Irving Browne. New York: James Osborne Wright. 1885.

THE sensational title of this volume is the worst thing about it, for it misrepresents the contents. The first essay, which bears this heading and recounts the various changes in traditionary and anecdotal history and in the reputations of both the good and the bad, is also the least interesting of the four because its subject-matter has been well threshed before. "Bibliomania," "Shaksperian Criticism," and "Gravestones" are all better, except that the last is almost too serious for its subject. The essays, taken together, belong to a kind of writing, like Donald Mitchell's, which is fast disappearing—to the leisurely, discursive, genial, anecdote-loving, broadly-read style, with bits of out-of-the-way information, quiet humor, pleasant and humane thoughts, and an unfailing good taste. They are not meant for instruction, but mere entertainment, and they rest the mind. One of the brighter patches occurs in the review of some Shaksperian commentaries, where an account is given of the semi-mythical inquiry into the character of the "merry man" who was the nurse's husband in "Romeo and Juliet." The concluding essay, however, is a discussion in detail of taste in mortuary memorials, and from the examples cited the author appears to have a wide acquaintance with American cemeteries. What he has to say on this subject is wholly admirable.

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Fine Arts.

THE MORGAN COLLECTION.

THE collection of pictures formed by the late Mrs. Mary J. Morgan, which is now on exhibition at the American Art Galleries, is especially rich in the works of the Fontainebleau school and of the other men of that wonderful generation, and no better occasion is likely ever to offer itself to art lovers for a study of the real qualities of the classic French landscape school, and of the one or two great figure painters that, somehow, one always associates with it. A glance at the catalogue, with its 8 Corots—several of them exceptionally fine and important—its 17 Diazes, its 5 Duprés, its 11 Millets, its seven Rousseaus, its 7 Troyons, and its 4 Daubignys, is sufficient of itself to show what a wealth of the art of this period is here, available for study; and though the art of other schools is less fully and satisfactorily represented, yet there is enough of such for comparison.

The first thing that strikes one in such a list as the above is that, while most of the artists contained in it are landscape painters, yet the figure painter Millet and the cattle painter Troyon take their places there as of right, and if one were to add the names of Delacroix and Decamps the list would still have a certain homogeneity; the only name in it that seems at all out of place being indeed that of a pure landscapist—Daubigny. This is only one proof of a general truth, that choice of subject forms no proper basis for classification in art. It is not what subject a painter chooses to treat, but his manner of treating it, that shows us to what school he belongs. If we would know whether or no such a man was a great painter, we ask, *not*, "Did he paint figures, or landscape, or merely still life?" but, "Was he a colorist or a draughtsman? did he submit himself to the actual and become a realist? did he weakly abandon himself to his imagination, and, finding nature 'put him out,' give up the struggle and become a dreamer? Or did he, grasping firmly at great truths and neglecting small ones, dominating the actual and submitting it to his imagination, yet never losing sight of truth, become a master?" These are the questions we ask ourselves, and to which we must somehow find answers if we would place any artist in his proper niche in our Pantheon. Tried by such tests, we find that the painters we are studying were, in their varying degrees, colorists and men of imagination. The two qualities go together, for no colorist ever was or ever can be a realist. Study carefully any one of the completed pictures by Millet in this collection—the little one called "Gathering Beans" is perhaps the most magnificent of them all—and then study any of the three by Gérôme. You will find that the revolutionary, the innovator Millet—the man who dared to abandon the beaten track of classicism, and to bring down upon his head the anathema of the big-wigs by painting the peasant as he knew him—is the most profound of poets and of idealists; and you will find that the polished draughtsman, the continuator of the classic tradition, is at bottom the coldest of realists, seeing nothing beyond the actual model posed before him, or only escaping from the actual by the help of scientific and calculated composition. Gérôme, in spite of his classical training, is the cool and scientific observer; Millet, in spite of his abandonment of tradition and his devotion to nature, remains the passionate *musician*, playing with his deep chords of blue and red and evolving magisterial harmonies from them. He is a colorist by nature, and it is necessary for him that each canvas should be perfect in its harmony, each note of color perfectly balancing every other, and direct imitation becomes impossible to him.

All the work of the school of painters we are discussing is alike in this. Look at the three grand and lovely Corots in Gallery A. Look at the fine and sombre Diaz in the same room: "Sunset After a Storm." Look at the remarkably similar "Twilight," by Rousseau, or Troyon's magnificent "Return from the Farm," with the black cow. These men are primarily painters of pictures. The canvas, as a whole—as a lovely piece of tone and color to look at and to enjoy for its own sake, as one might enjoy a piece of music—is first with them, and nature is second. They are artists, not imitators. There are little miracles of observation in Meissonier and in Gérôme, even in Vibert and Dagnan-Bouveret, of which they show no sign, but they have produced beautiful pictures and the others have too often produced little better than colored photographs—accurate records of observed facts. Even the classic and polished insipidities of Bouguereau and Lefèvre are at bottom only the products of a kind of emasculated realism, prettifying nature, but hardly aiming higher than to amuse by successful imitation of picked and chosen models, and alike devoid of imagination and of decorative feeling.

But the imaginative temperament of the colorist has its dangers when it is not controlled by a hearty love and reverence for nature. Pass from the great work of the great masters of this school to Dupré's "Symphony," and you feel at once that art has too far got the better of nature, and you revolt from the entire artificiality of the picture. One feels smothered in paint. It is well to be ideal and artistic, but there is health too in the love of nature, and while we willingly allow an artist to sacrifice the truth of literal imitation, are we prepared to allow also the sacrifice of essential truth? After all, there is a sound basis of right in the world's notion that painting is to some extent a statement of facts; and while we are willing that the painter should choose his facts, and sacrifice the small ones to the large ones, and imitation to essential truth, and while we demand of him that his statements shall be in beautiful language, as we do of the poet, yet we are no more prepared to admit that his statement shall be *false* than that the poet's shall be. And here, undoubtedly, lies the weakness of this great school of modern painting. The great ones sometimes, the smaller often, sacrifice nature to art too completely. In many of Diaz's landscapes, and in most of his figure subjects, and in nearly everything of Dupré's, one is in a world too thoroughly artificial for healthy human comfort.

It is a common error to imagine that the men whom "nature puts out"—in whom "natural objects deaden imagination"—are the men of the most powerful imaginations. Is not the truth, rather, that the strong imagination is that which dominates nature and moulds it to uses, and then works most mightily when it is seemingly most subjected to law, and that the imagination which flies nature and is "deadened" by it, is either weak in itself or is unsupported by sufficient knowledge to master its material? The weakness that flies nature, and the weakness that submits to nature, do not greatly differ, though the result is so different. The mighty men work calmly *with* nature, knowing always what to take and what to leave, neither slavishly copying the unessential nor weakly losing their grasp of the essential. As Fromentin has said of Rembrandt, the struggle of production in art is ever "the struggle between the actual as it imposes itself and the truth as the artist sees it in himself." It is cowardice to give up the struggle until one has attained something of that final reconciliation of the warring elements which is the triumph of art. And this reconciliation has nowhere in modern art been so nearly attained as in the best work of Millet. Of the weakness that denies nature no more apposite example could be found than the "Adoration of the Magi," by Monticelli, in this collection, in which one may look in vain for any indication that the artist had ever seen one fact of nature, or anything but the dreams of an imagination too feeble to embody them in visible and comprehensible form.

On the contrary, the great charm of Daubigny will always be that he combined with powers of imagination and composition not of the highest order, but sufficiently great to preserve him from mere realism, a clear perception and hearty love of the beauties of nature, and that his pictures refresh one like spring water after the feverishness of Diaz, and charm one like music after the mechanical imitation of much modern work. His little picture here, called "On the Seine," is an exquisite example of his most lovely qualities.

We have left ourselves little space to discuss other elements of the collection, such as the realism tempered by sentimentality of Breton, who, perhaps more than any other one man, is responsible for that form of modern art which has ended by sacrificing so much beauty and so many truths to the single truth of open daylight; or the brilliant charms of Stevens and Fortuny, or the nameless work that is neither realism nor idealism nor naturalism, but is only mechanism. Of this last class one would like to say something, but one despairs of doing any good.

MÉRYON'S ETCHINGS.

THE exhibition of Méryon's collected etchings, now visible at Mr. Keppel's gallery on Sixteenth Street, is worth having formed and worth seeing; it is especially useful in America, where there are positively no artists, etchers, or painters who attend to Méryon's specialty of street architecture. Méryon's example teaches how to make street-subjects look grand, impressive, interesting, without quackery or forcing. As Hamerton truly says, "his work was sanity itself"; it never yields to the temptation of picturesque raggedness, of piquant splotching, of vignetted margins. On his pencil sketch for the "Notre-Dame-Bridge" subject, here shown from Mr. Mansfield's collection, he has written, "Taken with a camera lucida"; and many of the themes have that aspect. The lines of walls are often ruled, and the rest of the time drawn as true as eye can guide hand; and to make a wall look crumbly he never resorts to Prout's forlorn trick of a dash and a point, like a Morse telegraphic despatch.

He attains beauty by his feeling for broad flashes of light, and by knowing how to make the paper work for him, the calm basking gleam being simply bare surface, with a calculated environment. Nothing can exceed his skill in knowing when to leave himself alone; thus the pediment of "St.-Étienne du Mont," where the warm freestone looks so much like an ivory cameo, has hardly any work in it at all: only the slight shadows of traceries and pilasters are kept perfectly large and flat, and this sunny gable prints itself on a sky made of ruled etched lines, as bold and hard as any tint laid by Dürer or Marcantonio in the infancy of engraving. His skies are simple reliefs for his architecture; their values are exquisitely true and wise, but they have no quality in themselves. When, to give these skies incident, he refrains from the etching-needle, and sketches-in cottony clouds with the dry-point,

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hese clouds are thoroughly bad in themselves—as inorganic as his vines and trees in other places; only their whites and grays are sensitively adapted to the contrast of a shadow-swept spire or a jutting gargoyle.

His fine instinct comes in when there is the quality of stonework to be expressed. The "Pont Neuf" is a picture consisting almost entirely of the inside of a great round arch in shadow; the skill consists in representing this shadow with lines spaced just right and made just deep enough, so as to keep the flicker of light beating up from under the bridge. There are proofs of this subject printed lighter and proofs printed darker—it is no matter: the variation only suggests the change made by some passing cloud; there is always the flicker of light beating up from the water, and this is the beautiful thing that it was essential to keep. In Gosselin's counterfeit of this plate, hung alongside, the shadow under the arch is true enough as to value, but it is done with pains and confusion, and the shadow is mere mud on the paper.

Méryon selects picturesqueness with lover-like passion, and then reports it with calmest lucidity; no better choice of "bits" could be made than his, yet he has none of the melodramatic lying usually to be detected in the lovers of "bits." The "Gallery of Notre Dame" is a kind of jungle of flowering Gothic colonnets; but the artist's effort is to range them, not to clash them together in a Hugo-like chiaroscuro. The "Notre Dame Pumping-machine" rises out of a net of interlaced timberwork, not at all easy to draw; but Méryon studies out the construction analytically, as Jacquemart did his famous bamboo lattice supporting the criminal's head. The corner turret in the "House of Marat," the stone demon on the cathedral tower, and portions of nearly all the other subjects, are just what most sketchers would treat with their most glittering embroidery, as vignettes; but Méryon never embroiders, and in all such places thinks chiefly how to keep his breadths of opal light. His touch was rather restrained and painful than inventive, and he uttered his deep knowledge of values in schoolroom terms, traditional and formal. This gives a quaint prophet-like gravity to every statement, and he is hardly ever more refreshing or better worth attending to than when he has to express some solid convent or other wall, checkered with square black windows, and looking in this treatment as if it had come from old time to stay into new time. What probably created Méryon's worth, to eyes a little tired of the silky lithographs of Célestin Nanteuil, was just this sober-sided austerity, inherited from seventeenth-century engravers who printed without "smudges." Méryon in the present series shows us his education. We see, for instance, his painful copy after Ducereau, the "Salle des Pas-perdus," a most back-breaking piece of drawing, with a double nave filled with rows of innumerable statues in perspective; and the "Old Louvre" and half-a-dozen other fine old things copied from Zeeman, each made up of crumpled and gritty lines like a Bewick. And out of this kind of apprenticeship, and out of reminiscences, too, of Piranesi, the artist constructs his style, using an antique sensitiveness to precision as a kind of fabric to support his modern sensitiveness to effects of light.

What is wayward and Blakelike about him is not his style, but certain definite inventions, as, the shoals of air-borne sharks flying about the Secretary of the Navy's office, and the "Pont au Change," seen here in several states, with the sky first a blank, then darkened with large birds, which change in a later printing to an argosy of balloons.

His madness is said to have been incipiently brought on by the toil over the plate of "San Francisco." This etching, thirty-nine inches across, is a sort of prospectus undertaken for the bankers, Bayerque & Pioche, and is a queer reminder of the shanty metropolis of 1855. He was to construct this panoramic view from a series of five daguerreotypes, inconsistent in perspective and in lighting; in the very middle of the scene, his documents became quite unintelligible, and he had to fill up the space with allegorical figures supporting a label. His letter to Burty describing his trouble in biting this plate—the rust had got at the copper and enlarged his lines under the varnish—reads like Cellini's account of his "Perseus." The task, however, was by no means gigantic; there are armies of young architects in Paris who would have thrown his shanties into perspective for him for a few dollars. But Méryon was so poor that at the epoch of his finest work, the "Rear of Notre Dame," he could not pay ten sous to his printer for a couple of trial proofs.

Méryon died mad in 1868 in the pauper madhouse, and was buried as a pauper in the graveyard of Charenton asylum, at the age of forty-seven. The present collection consists of about one hundred and thirty prints, some of them lent by Mr. Avery and Mr. Mansfield.

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